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ABSTRACT

This volume contains six workshop papers, each of which deals with one or more aspects of communicative competence. These papers are primarily reports of certain techniques which have been found successful for teaching and testing the ability to communicate in a foreign language. "Communicative Competence: Safety Tips for Riders on the Latest Foreign Language Bandwagon," by D.K. Jarvis, encourages a sensible application of communicative-centered language teaching by viewing language as a code which is to be applied to communication at the earliest stages of instruction. "Culture and Communicative Competence," by G. Gerhart, suggests a shift from the concept of making oneself understood to that of understanding the native speaker. "Verbal Interaction Games for the Foreign Language Classroom," by C.A. Bond, describes games designed to get students talking to each other in the target language. "Language Games for All Occasions," by S. Stroud, describes games for Russian. "The Role of Values Clarification in Developing Communicative Competence in Russian," by B. Lanys, discusses activities to be used with the values clarification approach. "Communicative Competence: Achievements, Attitudes, Techniques for Testing," by I. Thompson, discusses testing for communicative competence and describes one experiment in testing communication. (AM)

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STRATEGIES FOR TEACHING AND TESTING COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE IN RUSSIAN

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INTRODUCTION

The six papers in this volume all deal with one or more aspects of communicative competence, the current "bandwagon" in foreign language teaching, to use Don Jarvis' label. Before proceeding with the papers, several words of caution are in order. Communicative competence is not a new foreign language teaching method. It is rather a reaffirmation of something to which we in the profession have from time to time paid lip service and then proceeded to ignore in our day to day activities in the classroom, namely that our primary goal in foreign language classes is to teach our students to communicate. What does it mean to be able to communicate in a foreign language? To me it means to be able to interact meaningfully with others in that language. The key words are interact and meaningfully: interact by being able to send and receive messages; meaningfully in that the messages must contain something that the speaker wants to say or needs to say to either impart information or to cause his listener to do something. Clearly pattern drills, dialog manipulation, and translation drills do not fit this definition. This is not to say that they are to be ignored, or even de-emphasized. It is to say that in themselves they are not enough to develop in our students the ability to communicate.

The second word of caution concerns the nature of the six papers. They are not intended as theoretical explorations of the linguistic, psychological or methodological foundations of communicative competence. Rather they are primarily reports of certain techniques for teaching and testing the ability to communicate which the paper presenters and their sources have found successful.

And the final word of caution concerning the importance of testing. No matter how often we tell our

students that we consider communicative competence important, and no matter how regularly we engage in the type of classroom activities designed to develop communicative competence, our students will not take it seriously unless we also test regularly for that skill and assign a fair share of the course grade to it.

I am grateful to the six authors for preparing and presenting their papers. I am also grateful to Professor Ralph T. Fisher Jr., Director of the Russian and East European Center at the University of Illinois in Urbana-Champaign for his support in obtaining from the U.S. Office of Education the funds which made the symposium and this publication possible. Needless to say, I am also grateful to the Centers Section, USOE for making the funds available in support of this modest "outreach" effort.

Rasio Dunatov

Urbana, Illinois

COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE: SAFETY TIPS FOR RIDERS ON THE LATEST FOREIGN LANGUAGE BANDWAGON

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The Hegelian dialectic is alive and well, not only in philosophy but also in language methodology. In the latter field it seems to operate with great speed, for the last two decades have seen the pedagogical pendulum swing from grammar translation thesis to audio lingual antithesis and now to a communicative competence synthesis.[1] Most of us welcome this latest trend and may even have helped usher it in, but some are uneasily glancing ahead to see what zealous excesses in communicative competence methodology will eventually stimulate its antithesis. Many foreign language teachers, dizzy from watching the pendulum, may be merely keeping a low profile until this latest swing has swung by.

The object of this paper is to stimulate the latter teacher and enlighten the former: to encourage the sensible application of communication-centered foreign language (FL) teaching while avoiding expensive and counter-productive excesses. It is hoped that an innoculation of antithesis at this early stage will immunize the method and prolong its life. We will first scan the relatively firm empirical foundations of the movement and draw some caveats from parallel research outside of FL teaching. With the above research in mind, we will discuss some classroom presentation and practice techniques not requiring new materials or elaborate preparation.

First, a word on definitions: there seems to be a general if loose agreement among writers that there is a clear distinction between, on the one hand, the parts and form of an utterance and, on the other, its total

communicative impact. They are of course intimately connected in normal use, but they can be separated for research and teaching purposes. In the literature there are a variety of terms and focuses employed, but for the purposes of this discussion we will use the term "code" to denote linguistic forms considered as such and "load" to denote the total message load, the "scene," which a given set of forms could convey. While Stevick and others have posed cogent arguments for careful consideration of the affective meaning of FL class message loads,[2] all the empirical works surveyed by this writer are gross comparisons of code emphasis versus load emphasis in language teaching.

Research Findings Favoring Content Emphasis

Numerous empirical studies on FL teaching, mostly within the last decade, have indicated the value of greater emphasis on load and less emphasis on code.

Value of content in the presentation phase

First, a look at presentation techniques: As early as 1953 Kale found that pairing words with pictures of referents (code plus load) was better than pairing the FL word with the vernacular word (code plus code).[3] In the early sixties, Asher first presented impressive results from his Total Physical Response Technique, showing that physical response to the message load of commands resulted in rapid learning and excellent retention. Asher's subsequent research has corroborated his earlier finding.[4] In 1971, Hauptman, working with elementary children, found that a situational approach based on role-playing of meaningful dialogues was superior to a structural approach for children with high language aptitude.[5] However, he reported that these results did not hold for children of lower language ability. (We

will discuss this important treatment-aptitude interaction later on.) in 1974 Postovsky reported superior experimental results from a permutation of Asher's method employing pencil-and-paper responses to the message load of videotaped presentations.[6] Heien reported in 1975 that presentation of a written literal translation (load plus code) of a Russian dialogue produced significantly better results than did word-for-word vocabulary training (code plus code).[7] Finally, research on Losonov's Suggestopedic technique indicates that any superiority of that system, which is a relaxed, semi-hypnotic approach, may actually be due to its focus on the communicative load of very long dialogue passages.[8]

Value of content in the practice phase

Research supports the value of load emphasis during the manipulation phase. In 1968 Chastain found that exercises stressing understanding were superior to code-oriented pattern drills.[9] That same year Oller and Obrecht reported that "the effectiveness of a given pattern drill is significantly increased by relating the language of that drill to communicative activity in the teaching/learning process."[10] In 1971 Jarvis and Hatfield, comparing code and load activities, found load exercises no better in developing the receptive skills of listening and reading, but significantly superior in developing the productive (speaking and writing) skills.[11] Savignon, in a loosely controlled 1972 experiment comparing code and load practice and a third "cultural" activity conducted in English, found similar results, plus, not surprisingly, the superiority of communicative activities in developing communicative competence itself.[12] In 1974 Joiner found that load techniques produced no better results in any of the basic skills, but did result in better communicative proficiency.[13] The following year Schulz found that code-centered testing

resulted in superior development of student awareness of structure, but load-centered testing was preferred by students and resulted in better communicative proficiency.[14]

It would appear from the foregoing that activities stressing communication are clearly superior for early presentation; in the practice and testing phases communication activities are not clearly superior for developing basic skills, but are more effective for developing the communicative skill itself.

Studies Which Favor a Structure Emphasis

Research from the field of teaching first language reading in the elementary school indicates that great caution should be used in interpreting the above studies. In the 1950's and early 1960's, analagous studies and results led to the wide-spread use of non-analytical, load-focused recognition techniques for teaching reading in United States elementary schools. Extensive subsequent research comparing code- versus load-centered techniques found that meaning-emphasis methods were less effective in general than code-emphasis methods, although no one program or method was superior for all outcomes and all types of pupils.[15]

Code emphasis is found to be slower at first, but load emphasis "is associated with poorer comprehension and vocabulary in about the third grade, probably because of poorer word recognition."[16] This is particularly true for slower learners, while the difference is less marked for faster students, who are able to decipher the code on their own.[17] This is identical to Hauptman's findings, cited earlier, with foreign language in the elementary school. Together the findings indicate that caution is in order in any plan to abandon all FL code-attack skills in favor of load-centered techniques, at least at the elementary school level, because we may unintentionally discriminate against our slower students who have more trouble deciphering the

code. Other studies on attention, comprehension, and learning rate indicate that this code-deciphering ability may be the crucial difference between slow and fast learners at older levels also: many "slow" learners actually learn as fast as "fast" learners once they understand the crucial features of a given phenomenon.[18]

Carroll and Rivers, two leading U. S. authorities on FL teaching methods, both agree on the existence of two separable phases in any person's language use: a code manipulating phase and a load manipulating phase.[19] This view is entirely consistent with extensive research on the deaf and with factor analyses of intelligence tests: language (code) skills and thought (load) processing are two different skills, at least partially, if not totally, independent of each other.[20]

Methods

Judging from all the foregoing evidence, one implication for language teaching seems obvious: neither code nor communication skills should be ignored in diagnosis, teaching, or testing. Quicker students will likely need less concentration on code than will slower ones, but all types of students will need some work on both code and communication for optimum results.

It is fairly easy to fall into the trap of teaching either skill to the exclusion of the other. However, fluency should be thought of as analagous to the skill of mountain climbing. The bottom of the mountain represents code-centered practice, the summit--communicative practice. Students will learn little of mountain climbing if they spend their time either at the top or bottom; they will learn best when they are moving between the two points. The analogy is imperfect but clear: students who move frequently from code practice to load practice will learn better than those who practice one to the exclusion of the other.

Two other points about communicative practice are suggested by the above research and find extensive support from the pro-communication writers: 1) during communication practice, the teacher, along with the students, ought to focus on load and keep his code corrections gentle and few in number; 2) communication practice is most effective when the student is exercising initiative and using the language to communicate messages that are significant to him, not merely to the teacher.

Full discussion of the above points is beyond the scope of this paper and perhaps even unnecessary, as most writers assume them to be an integral part of communicative practice. Suffice it to say that they have enormous impact on the emotional climate of the classroom in general and the development of communicative skills in particular. Research on these two techniques is probably called for not so much in their application to communicative competence as in their applicability to code practice.

To sum up the above, these three general strategies are suggested by the literature and are important to the methods discussed below: 1) frequent shifting between code and load practice, 2) minimal code correction during load practice and 3) maximum student initiative during load practice.

Few teachers are eager to employ any method if it entails extensive production of new materials or intricate, exotic techniques. New materials and radical techniques have and will be developed to teach communicative competence more effectively, but the above principles are not difficult to employ, and good results can be obtained rather easily. Indeed, most teachers have used valid communication activities at one time or another and can simply use them more frequently in the future to achieve better communication skills in their students.

The following discussion divides the methods into presentation and practice activities (with considerable overlap), and under each heading suggests some simple, easily applied techniques.

Use of Presentation Materials for Developing Communicative Competence

After the first few lessons, the main presentation activities for most teachers are reading selections and dialogues. Both types of activities present rich possibilities for communication activities.

Most texts include questions on the content of the reading selections and dialogues, and many teachers assign their students to answer these questions as part of the homework. This is a good, basic, load-centered activity, which can be made even more effective if the students make up and write down their own questions (and answers) on the assigned text before class. Then, in class, the students in turn ask one of their questions of the whole class and select a class member to answer it. This activity may seem similar to answering written questions from the book, but the communicative and affective value is much higher: the students have exercised initiative. No one else knows exactly what another will ask, everyone has to listen and formulate a reply, and the sociogram of verbal behavior is student-to-student rather than teacher-to-student. The teacher can listen and repeat the question much as a master of ceremonies might, so that all can hear it. He may inobtrusively change an ending here or there, giving the impression that any change is not so much a correction of form as a question of whether this was the content intended. Parents frequently use this minimal, content-oriented form correction on their children, and it does minimal ego-damage. This technique of assigning student-formulated questions on the reading can begin with very

early reading selections and can be continued clear up through advanced literature classes, where students should be encouraged to focus more on style, significance of motifs, and philosophical implications, and less on basics of the plot. For all levels, it is wise to collect the questions at the end of each class as evidence of homework done. They can be corrected and returned or merely destroyed after being recorded.

The possibilities for self-expression in this kind of activity are wide and can be increased by assigning some questions using the vocabulary and structure of the story, but focusing on content in the students' own lives. For instance, a beginning text reading selection on sports could elicit student questions such as "Do you often ski?" "Are you good at skiing?" "Do you prefer skiing or swimming?" It is beneficial for the teacher to periodically model both this sort of student-life-focused question and the text-focused question in order to make the students aware of the breadth of questions that can be asked and to give them some examples of interrogative forms.

Sometimes students should be paired off for one or two minute periods to ask this sort of prepared text- and life-oriented questions of each other in a more intimate face-to-face mode approximating real life conversation.

Soviet teachers are quite enamoured of the pereskaz (paraphrase) technique for content-oriented practice of reading selections, but this writer has found it less effective than the above method for the following reasons: 1) the sociogram is teacher-to-student, 2) emphasis is on the speaking skill only, not listening-and-formulating-a-reply, and 3) there is either excessive groping for words, if everyone is responsible for the paraphrase, or else innattention and boredom, if one or two are assigned and well-prepared for the paraphrase. For the above reasons, paraphrase

of reading selections should not be relied on as a main communicative activity.

Heien's research, quoted earlier, indicated that a literal translation of a given dialogue resulted in faster learning than did a simple list of FL and native language equivalents used in that dialogue. There is no reason to dispute this finding nor the practice of presenting visuals to illustrate and cue a dialogue, although there would seem a certain value in periodically letting students decode their recombination reading on their own with the help of adequate glosses. Probably more critical than the actual presentation method of the dialogue is what students are expected to do with a dialogue once learned. Mere memorization and recitation of the lines is a parody of communication and results in the ossification of certain chance combinations of structures which the student may find difficult to separate and manipulate later on. It is true, as has been wryly noted, that it is hard to find many speakers in the target culture who know their half of the dialogue.

Yet the dialogue is a useful tool, a linguistic beachhead, as Robert Lado calls it.[21] How can the student be encouraged to immediately move inland off the beachhead?

One effective and ridiculously simple solution is to have the students memorize the dialogue, or at least critical parts of it, but then require that they make some grammatically correct form and content changes in it when they perform it, and respond intelligently to others' changes. For example, familiar forms can be changed to polite, synonyms can be inserted for some of the banalities such as "hello," "goodbye," and "thank you," and antonyms or other substitutions can be made throughout. This radically alters the nature of the dialogue practice: the student must be continually aware of the content, he begins manipulating forms early on, and he becomes ego-involved in what changes he will

make. During the presentation he must understand and respond correctly to his partner's changes. It is an optimum sort of structured freedom in which communicative competence grows rapidly. One caution: it is vital that students really do learn the new idioms and vocabulary in the dialogue or else their "creativity" too easily becomes avoidance of new forms in favor of old ones. Student memorization of crucial new parts can be quickly checked via a short, representative, English-to-target language translation test.

Few teachers put much effort into the presentation of new vocabulary, due partly to limitations in time, ideas, and visual materials and partly to a recognition that students manage to muddle along in this area with only the vocabulary list and minimal teacher help. However, two techniques of vocabulary presentation and drill need to be considered by the teacher who would like to improve vocabulary learning and retention for improved communicative power: 1) the overhead transparency, and 2) adapted Total Physical Response.

The overhead transparency inexpensively solves the problem of in-class picture management for the teacher who dislikes juggling and sorting through a stack of vocabulary pictures to find the one he needs. On a single sheet of clear acetate, the teacher, an aid, or a student can outline visuals for a dozen or more vocabulary items. Each visual on the sheet can be numbered, and retention can be tested by the teacher's calling out the foreign language vocabulary items and having students write down the correct number of each. The above can be thought of as a poor man's version of the elaborate video-tape presentation methods used effectively by Postovsky at the Defense Language Institute[22] to develop listening comprehension before other skills.

Despite impressive empirical evidence of its effectiveness, Total Physical Response, a technique requiring students to respond bodily to spoken commands,

is not a widely used method of presentation. Reasons for this are probably its being proposed as a complete method rather than a useful adjunct, and its apparent inapplicability to a normal large class. Total Physical Response (TPR) methods have been successfully applied by Postovsky[23] and by Ingram, et al,[24] and deserve to be more widely used. Ingram used strict TPR only the first few weeks, then shifted to other techniques; but there is no reason a modified TPR could not be used as an adjunct and change of pace throughout the course to present and practice verbs, using real actions or pantomime without students leaving their seats. For instance, most concrete and many abstract verbs, such as "to throw," "to smile," "to think," and "to ignore" can each be performed or pantomimed by the teacher as he says each corresponding command employing the verb. Several commands may be joined together for variety. As described in articles setting forth TPR technique,[25] students mimic the teacher's actions several times before the teacher ends his actions and begins testing the students by saying the command without actions. TPR can be used anytime during a lesson, and little preparation is required except a good grasp of the command form of each verb. TPR is not only a content-centered comprehension activity, but it also is a refreshing change of pace, acquaints students with the useful imperative form, and results in amazing retention rates. Few teachers will want to use it exclusively, but most will want to add it to their repertoire.

Use of Practice Materials for Developing Communicative Competence

Most of our books and our training as teachers emphasize code-oriented drills, and as we have seen from the research literature, it would be unwise to exclude this conventional code-oriented practice from the

classroom. What is needed is a better balance of code and load practice. The question, then, is how to begin with traditional structure drills and follow them up with load-centered activities using vocabulary and structures just practiced.

One widely used technique, which is quite effective but hardly radical, is to follow each pattern drill or exercise set with questions based on the vocabulary and structure of the exercise, but focusing on reality, preferably the students' own lives. This can be done from the very beginning of a language class. For instance, after drilling the past tense of the verb "to be" the teacher asks a good student, "Were you at home yesterday?" or a similar easy question. The student answers with yes or no plus a full sentence, and the teacher asks another student if the first student was home yesterday. After the class has the idea, the teacher commands the class, "Ask your neighbor, 'Were you at home yesterday?'" The class members then pair off for a ten second experience in successful face-to-face communication. At the end of the ten seconds, the teacher can ask one or two students what they found out--whether their neighbor was home yesterday, or not. Of course such activities can be made more sophisticated, more open-ended as time passes, but the point is that they can and should begin from the very first, and almost every drill should be followed by some brief communicative activity. It is this writer's experience that it is effective and enjoyable to do so, beginning with the teacher's questions and ending with the powerful, communication-igniting phrase, "Ask your neighbor..." If nothing else were done in the classroom to develop communication skill, the above would provide an effective first step.

Another communication activity requiring even less teacher effort is the two minute talk. One student is assigned each day to give a short talk at the beginning

or end of class on anything he cares to speak on. Well, almost anything. The ground rules are that he should use a visual aid, employ only familiar vocabulary, and stick to the time limit. Students express their personalities on center stage, in the FL, and inattention is rare. This is, of course, merely thinly disguised show-and-tell, that time-tested elementary school method for developing communication skills.

Bonin[26] and Allen[27] have each described delightful communication activities that require only modest teacher preparation. Bonin suggests an on-going program of "Know your neighbor," utilizing groups of three students and files of interview cards which list personal-preference questions, carefully based on each level of the class textbook's grammar and vocabulary. Allen suggests a variety of activities, among them a whimsical interview and role-playing game in which each person is given a card with his "own" characteristics in one column and those of his wife or other family member in another column. He is supposed to interview other class members to discover which one has been assigned the characteristics of this family member he is seeking. Allen and Bonin's activities should provide ideal structuring for face-to-face communication practice.

Concluding Statement

Communicative competence is best served not by ignoring structure and vocabulary, but by engaging in activities which are closely related to forms just practiced, do not involve excessive teacher correction, and are meaningful to the student. Communicative competence will not come from any ecstatic leap away from language structure, but by studying language as a code and applying that code to communication from the earliest stages.

FOOTNOTES

[1]It is not totally unfair to call communicative competence a synthesis of grammar-translation and audio-lingual methods. Grammar-translation texts usually had a fair emphasis on message load, while audio-lingual texts tended to emphasize structure at the expense of content, thereby earning the epithets "idiot Spanish," "idiot French," etc. from cynics. Most studies of communicative competence appear to be adaptions of sounder audio-lingual techniques to communicative purposes.

[2]Earl W. Stevick, "The Meaning of Drills and Exercises," Language Learning: A Journal of Applied Linguistics, 24 (June, 1974), 1-22.

[3]Emma M. Birkmaier, "Modern Languages," in Encyclopedia of Educational Research, 3rd edition, ed. Chester W. Harris (New York: Macmillan, 1960), p. 878.

[4]James J. Asher, Jo Anne Kusudo, and Rita De La Torre, "Learning a Second Language Through Commands: The Second Field Test," Modern Language Journal, 55 (January-February, 1974), 24-32.

[5]Philip C. Hauptman, "A Structural Approach vs. a Situational Approach to Foreign-Language Teaching," Language Learning: A Journal of Applied Linguistics, 21 (December, 1971), 235-44.

[6]Valerian A. Postovsky, "Delay in Oral Practice in Second Language Learning," Modern Language Journal, 53 (September-October, 1974), 229-39.

[7]L. G. Heien, "Towards a Systematic Development of Listening Comprehension," Russian Language Journal, 34 (Spring, 1975), 85-93.

[8]Robert William Bushman, "Effects of a Full and a Modified Suggestopedic Treatment in Foreign Language Learning," (M. A. Thesis, Brigham Young University, 1976).

[9]Kenneth D. Chastain and Frank J. Woerdehoff, "A Methodological Study Comparing the Audio-Lingual Habit Theory and the Cognitive Code-Learning Theroy," Modern Language Journal, 52 (May 1968), 268-79.

[10]John W. Oller and Dean H. Obrecht, "Pattern Drill and Communicative Activity: A Psycholinguistic Experiment," International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 6 (May, 1968), 165-74.

[11]Gilbert A. Jarvis and William N. Hatfield, "The Practice Variable: An Experiment," Foreign Language Annals, 5 (May, 1971), 401-10.

[12]Sandra J. Savignon, Communicative Competence: An Experiment in Foreign Language Teaching (Philadelphia: Center for Curriculum Development, 1972).

[13]Elizabeth Gainer Joiner, "Communicative vs. Non-Communicative Language Practice in the Teaching of Beginning College French: A Comparison of Two Treatments," Dissertation Abstracts International, 35 A (November-December, 1974), 2838-39.

[14]Renate A. Wolf Schulz, "Discrete-Point Versus Simulated Communication Testing: A Study of the Effect of Two Methods of Testing in the Development of Communicative Proficiency in Beginning College French Classes," Dissertation Abstracts International 35A (March-April 1975), 5694-95.

[15]Gabriel M. Della-Piana and George T. Endo, "Reading Research," in Second Handbook of Research of Teaching, ed. Robert M. W. Travers (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1973), p. 884.

[16]Ibid., p. 883.

[17]Ibid.

[18]Tom Trabasso, "Pay Attention," Psychology Today, 2 (October, 1968), 30-36.

[19]Wilga M. Rivers, The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964), p. 129, and Theodore L. Harris, "Reading," in Encyclopedia of Educational Research, 4th edition, ed.

Robert L. Ebel (Toronto: Macmillan, 1969), p. 1076.

[20]James J. Asher, "Implications of Psychological Research for Second Language Learning," in Foreign Language Education: A Reappraisal, ACTFL Review of Foreign Language Education, 4, ed. Dale L. Lange and Charles J. James (Skokie, Illinois: National Textbook Co., 1972), p. 172.

[21]Robert Lado, Language Teaching: A Scientific Approach (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964), p. 61.

[22]Postovsky, loc. cit.

[23]Ibid.

[24]Frank Ingram, James Nord, and Donald Dragt, "A Program for Listening Comprehension, "Slavic and East European Journal, 19 (Spring, 1975), 1-10.

[25]Asher, Kusudo, and De La Torre, op. cit.

[26]Therese M. Bonin and Diane W. Birchbichler, "Real Communication Through Interview and Conversation Cards," Modern Language Journal, 59 (January-February, 1975), 22-25.

[27]Edward D. Allen, Communicative Competence, CAL-ERIC/CLL Series on Language and Linguistics, No. 15 (Arlington, Virginia: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, ED 104 166, 1975), p. 13.

CULTURE AND COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

Genevra Gerhart

"Communicating" is the rage these days, in the society of language teachers and out of it. Much emphasis has been placed lately on this fairly nebulous ability to make our feelings known to those around us -- as if, by having got our message through, our problems in living together would tend to disappear. The assumption leads to a false conclusion in the first place, and starts, I think, from the wrong person in the second.

Consider the first assumption -- that communication leads to understanding, which leads to peace at home and in the world. This argument is used by foreign language pushers grasping at straws as they sink in the quicksand of public non-acceptance and non-support. The argument ignores the fact that in conflicts such as the civil wars the combatants understand each other perfectly. Nor does it account for the statistically greater likelihood of being murdered by a friend or a relative than by a stranger.

"Communication" is these days usually taken in the aggressive sense where what is important is that the speaker speaks, and rather less important whether the hearer hears. For example, this marvelously egocentric quotation by Don Rogers was cited by Schulz and Bartz at the beginning of their article "Free to Communicate:"[1]

> I communicate with the breath, smiles, tears of all my life. Everything I think, or say, or do communicates. I communicate with all the energy of my life. When I am happy, I communicate. When I am sorrowful, I communicate. This is my existence. My whole life is communicating.
>
> And as long as I communicate, I exist. I am.[2]

The emphasis is on the abilities of the sender, rather than the receiver. When we say "He doesn't communicate well," what we mean is that he cannot (or does not) express himself clearly enough to get his message through. But, especially for Russian teachers, I think "getting through" is even less than half the battle. In the real life of most of our students it will be more important to be able to receive than to send a message, and therefore I think it is more important to lay stress first on those methods that teach comprehension. The emphasis should be on understanding the base of meaning from which a Russian speaker or writer is operating. I should think this is also necessary before we can make ourselves clear to them. The medium belongs to the Russian. It is ours first to try to comprehend the medium and then to use it.

To most people it might seem obvious that at least one goal of learning a foreign language should indeed be the ability to send and receive messages in that language. Actually, foreign language methodologists of recent history would not have protested such a worthy objective. The only problem was that in practice the form of the message (saying it correctly) took precedence over its content; words lost their meaning (in students' minds) and form became the substance of language lessons. Having more or less followed instructions on how to inculcate correct language habits, teachers see their students leave their classes glassy-eyed and bored from an overabundance of exercise. The recent emphasis on communicative competence, or the ability to send and receive messages, is to some extent also just a reaction to an over-emphasis on method, or perhaps more accurately an under-emphasis on goals.

We should not put too much blame, however, on the various teaching methods of recent years. Poor

teaching could also be responsible. For example, my son is currently in his last quarter of two years of high school French where the grammar-translation method is being used. He has not yet been exposed to the present subjunctive. This means that he can say, "I want to go" and "I need to go" but not "I have to go."

There is a certain unassailable logic about the notion of developing the ability to communicate as an obvious end to our efforts as language teachers. Those in disciplines other than ours undoubtedly take such a goal for granted. How could we have strayed from such a worthy object? One reason is that for a long time we took our leadership from fields with other gods. For instance, the linguist is interested less in what a language is saying than in how the language arrives at saying it.[3] The specialist in literature is interested primarily in how well something is said, and the psychologist of learning is not concerned with the content of learning as much as he is interested in how that learning takes place. These fields do not combine to produce answers to our basic problems, which are (1) what is meant when such and such is expressed (no matter how it might be expressed), and (2) how do we get our students to understand the expressions and to be able to use them? Item (1) would of course include the usual phonetics, grammar, and vocabulary, but would then go beyond these to include the study of the culture in order to understand what is being said.

Definitions of culture abound. Some come from sociologists, anthropologists and even linguists, but the definitions of primary concern to us come from writers on foreign language education.[4] There are two basic types. One is the "little c" or "hearthstone" culture, which suggests that we discuss what Russians have for breakfast, daily health routines and "songs, rhymes and poems," etc. One problem with this approach

to culture is that the writers usually fail to mention just where the poor teachers are to obtain this information. The other type of cultural description is the ethereal, even spiritual one, with categories such as: symbolism, values, authority, etc., or interaction, association, subsistence, etc.,[5] or biological and psychological integration of the human organism and its interaction with the environment, personality structure, etc.[6] By some magic kind of common consent, however, "bit C" culture means traditional, formal categories such as Art, History, Literature and the like. "Culture" to the anthropologist is somewhat similar. He too is interested in "grand themes," but on a limited basis. He will study kinship terminology among pre-literate tribes and then draw conclusions about family life and who has to look after the children. The information obtained from this source is interesting, but too limited for our purposes.

Culture is obviously an overburdened word, but I doubt the advantage of raising another one. For our purposes we might define culture as the sum of information or belief generally familiar to or significant among members of a given language society outside the areas of individual competence. It is the knowledge that is common to a language group. It might be thought of as a grid against which any specific bit of information must be placed to have meaning. It is the language background. It is, for example, the information necessary to understand jokes.

Let us take, as a familiar example, the young lady in that famous New Yorker cartoon of the 1930's. She is seated beside her mother at a rather well-appointed dinner table. The caption below reads, "I say it's spinach, and I say the Hell with it!" One must not only have the forms of the words in good order, but also understand the strength of "Hell"

coming from the mouth of such a young lady at such a level in society. Furthermore, I can imagine that in China, for example, such a joke is beyond comprehension, since it presupposes that vegetables can be an object of childish dislike. A Chinese might say, "I say it's roast beef, and I say the Hell with it!"

Culture is the significant context as seen by the native. I have a mean girl-friend who is getting old enough not to worry so much as she used to about the impression she is making. Upon entering an elevator occupied by just a couple of other people, she will walk right up to one of them and stand very close. Her amusement is to watch the alarm at such an unconventionality, and to calculate how fast her subject can sidle away.

Similarly, I was once in a Moscow book store at a counter examining the wares. Before long there were not just a couple of us looking, but maybe ten to fifteen people also became interested. Predictably enough, they automatically elbowed (and shouldered) me out, not from intent but merely from custom. I was tired and frustrated, so I totally lost my temper for some 30 seconds. I stamped my feet and thrashed about with my arms under the unconscious impression that such a display would make those in the vicinity aware that they were pushing, and that just was **not** nice. At the end of my display (for which I was immediately ashamed), what a shock! Nobody had noticed! No one complained, said anything or paid the slightest attention. In America, at the very least I would have got, "Lady, whadaya think yer doin?"

One of the advantages of my definition of culture is that it establishes some limit, no matter how blurred the edges, beyond which the professional language student need not go to claim his professionalism. Thus, he need not claim familiarity with all the

children's poems he finds published. He need only be familiar with those that a contemporary Russian is familiar. According to this definition of culture in its relation to language, therefore, the person who does not know what happened to Humpty Dumpty does not speak English adequately, and Yankee Doodle and even Dixie, are equally a part of American English. It is not enough for us to know what word might stand for which object -- we must also understand the significance of the object. In writing Russian's World I had to battle the publisher over the length of the Animals chapter. The editor thought that since animals are of no particular interest to Americans, there was no sense in devoting a large amount of space to them in a book destined for an American audience. But I was trying to describe Russian culture as one aspect of the Russian language, not American culture as translated into Russian. It is hard to explain to someone that something is there even though he cannot see it. He has first to realize that he cannot see it.

As another example, let us take the linguistic, or rather cultural, aspects of geography. To understand properly American English, you must know about where New York is, and also know the significance of the Empire State Building, skyscrapers, Broadway, Wall Street, Harlem, the Village, the Bowery, Fifth Avenue, Brooklyn, the Statue of Liberty, mugging, and how cheaply we bought it all from the Indians. For Chicago, the Windy City, one must know about railroads, stockyards, and Mrs. O'Leary's rambunctious cow. San Francisco has hills, earthquakes and cable cars, while Los Angeles has sun, movie stars, Hollywood, ticky tacky houses and an abundance of unusual religious groups. The competent non-native English teacher should not only be able to pronounce the names of the states, but also be able at least generally to locate

most of them on a map. Imagine not understanding a fifference between Mighican and Mississippi. Let us consider an experiment in the obverse. Several years ago I compiled a list of geographical place names in Russian, most of which were in the USSR, a few were internationally significant, and a few more were American place names. Some sixteen non-native graduate students and faculty members in Russian then were asked to indicate where they thought the stress marks ought to be. Out of a total of fifty-five place names, the average number wrong was thirty-two. (Could this behavior be characterized as nekul'turno?) The test was not designed to be easy: I did not ask to assign stress for places like Moscow and Leningrad, but all or almost all of the names were familiar to the examinees. The results indicate that we might consider changing some of the emphases in our foreign language training: more language/cultural information should be part of every student's baggage.

Still another illustration of a missing cultural component can be seen in Soviet conceptions about us. (Political views that might insist on a misconception are not included in this argument.) I have an American children's story on a Soviet film strip about a cat that repeatedly gets lost in what seems to be New York. We see the rooms of an apartment where the cat lives and a number of shops where the adventurous cat turns up in the course of the story. The apartment rooms are a fascinating rendition of Soviet apartment rooms -- a reminder of the meaning of the word "table" as a summation of all the tables one has known. Catastrophies occurred in the kitchen where either objects or their uses were totally unfamiliar -- hamburgers were shown to be prepared in the oven in one frame, and in another the oven is shown with a can of motor oil on its shelves. The cat gets lost in one of several

mixmasters evidently belonging to the household. The bathroom is equally Russian, with a shower arrangement in the tub, but no shower curtain. The cat turns up at the cleaners one day, in what looks like a Soviet establishment. The cat further ventures to a post office that has a mail box behind the counter where the clerk is at work. The postal clerk is also thoughtfully supplied with a pot of sealing wax. Other fairly unlikely depictions of American life occur, but the most shocking frame shows a bus with four people on it, three of whom are seated. The one person standing is a black, and the drawing is a pre-World War II caricature.

Let us wend our way back to the classroom. I think I took my first step on the low road to culture as a newly arrived student in Paris, too many years ago. My business there was to enroll as a student of Russian, and naturally, this had to be done in French, a fact that gave me little pause, since my preparation at the local university back home had at first seemed adequate. I gathered the many carefully prepared documents and eventually found myself at a University of Paris registration window behind which sat the usual gruff and peremptory Parisienne who was then already beyond the "certain age." I made my request known to her and she immediately replied, "Bien, epelez votre nom." Spell my name? "Tee" I began, and hesitated. "Ti? Qu'est ce que c'est que ca? Epelez votre nom, s'il vous plait." I turned brilliant red, shocked into the discovery that those (expletive deleted) back home had presumed to teach me French, but had not taught me to spell! My grammar was passable, my vocabulary was serviceable, my pronunciation was comprehensible, but no one had ever suggested that such an utter simplicity as knowing the names of the letters was part of the art of knowing the language. I still

have my French I text. The pronunciation of the names of the letters is not to be found. How many linguists today would say that the ability to spell was part of the language?

Maybe I have made my point about the advantages of knowing some culture. How does that fit in with communications and the classroom? I earlier insisted that communication was a two-way street, and that we would perhaps be better able to send comprehensible messages if we could also receive them, and to receive them we have to comprehend the world of ideas, information and beliefs from whence they came.

Another factor enters into the discussion when we are down to the nitty-gritty of what goes on in the classroom. This factor is above the trivia of either communications or culture -- it is the factor of what goals we might have for education in foreign languages. There are those who say that our goal has been to enable the student to interact with the people of another culture.[7] I am pessimistic about "interacting" with people of another culture -- the mere physical opportunity for "person-to-person" interaction seems far too limited to call for all this effort now, especially at the high school level. The thought of interacting with a book sounds slightly obscene. Rather, the main goal of foreign language education should be the enrichment of the student's life by allowing him to see that there are other ways of organizing what he sees as reality. Education should indeed be a "leading-out" (e-duct), away from an egocentric world-view where communication is not much more than the single-minded expression of self we hear in a baby's cry. A language is an organization beyond the traditional components of phonetics, grammar and lexicon. It is another viewpoint that gives relief and dimension to the world we must live in.

What does this mean for the classroom? It means spending at least as much time on teaching to receive (read and listen) as to send messages (speak and write). It means spending more time investigating the background of meaning from which a Russian is sending his messages. The pictures we use in class should be from Russian sources, not those Americanizations that so often accompany American language texts. If you need large pictures of Russian objects, school supply stores in the USSR have quantities of them at unbelievably low prices. They can also supply schoolroom-size writing charts, maps, or even the Periodic Table of the Elements. Soviet filmstrips are available at these stores and at department stores. If you subscribe to Russkii iazyk za rubezhom, you also get color slides of famous places in famous cities with each issue, and this is in addition to frequent articles describing such aspects of culture as standard contemporary greeting patterns, for example.

The songs we teach should not be Russian translations of "Happy Birthday to You," or "The Old Gray Mare," or even "Silent Night." They should be the songs that the Russians sing on similar occasions.

If poetry is even memorized (and I think it should be), the poems should be selected from the stock of poetry that has entered the language. Our notions of literary or artistic merit are irrelevant to a language class. "To be or not to be" and "Humpty Dumpty" have differing literary merit, but their linguistic weight is the same.

History in a language class should be as the Russian knows it. In the sample first chapter of the proposed text Russkii chelovek: istoriia i kul'tura as cited in Iazyk i kuk'tura,[8] it is interesting that no mention is made of the Scandinavian origins of Oleg, nor is any mention made of Rurik at all. My

father was of Norwegian descent, but my joke with a Russian about the possibility of common ancestors fell on uncomprehending ears. The aforementioned book, if it is ever finished, ought to be of considerable use to the language teacher in helping him sort out the relevant from the irrelevant in history as culture.

Our aim is to lead the students out to a world beyond their own, to introduce them to it, and to develop their abilities to comprehend, communicate and cope in it. How to do that? By systematically exposing the student to a wide variety of sounds and sights in Russian and about Russian. Steiner says that "...the student may need directed exposure in class before he will invest his own time in an activity."[9] (This, translated, means that the kid is unlikely to move unless you poke him.) So we use directed exposure to push him out into the world, and we use his existing interests to help pull him out. As an example, let us take the first day in class.

The first third of the class period should be in Russian, all in Russian (though the title of the course can be written on the board to ward off the wanderer who came to the wrong place). The students are greeted individually as they come in. They should not be expected to repeat the greeting -- they should merely come to realize that they were greeted. The teacher introduces himself in Russian, and writes his names on the board in Russian, repeating all the while, and then continues, using Russian pictures and speaking in Russian, to make clear that he is a teacher, that he teaches Russian, that he is so many years old, that he has so many children and so forth. Throughout this effort, the teacher makes every effort to keep his referents clear (by writing numbers or drawing pictures), but he does not insist that his students demonstrate either that they can imitate the words,

or even that they have necessarily understood them. The point of this exercise is to show that the obvious is comprehensible.[10]

For the next third of the first class period, ask the students to fill out cards with the following information (some of which relates to the matter at hand): 1) name, 2) age, 3) address, 4) telephone, 5) parent's or guardian's name, 6) names and ages of brothers and sisters, 7) favorite subjects in school, 8) hobbies, 9) jobs held. Such cards are a wealth of information for emergencies, for substitutes and for foreign language projects. On the reverse side of the card, the student should answer a few questions based on the introductory talk in Russian. What is the teacher's last name? How old is he? How many children does he have, or whatever? The point to this is not to make any effort at testing comprehension, but merely to let them know that you are going to expect them to try to understand.

The last third of the period should be spent making sure in English that everyone knows whatever ground rules are to apply in the class. The first assignment is to translate "IP GISSA GUL" into English.[11] (This is a cartoon already in English, though that fact is not immediately apparent. Context supplies the keys to the language.)

Each day can start similarly -- and the object is always to show that considerable information can be transmitted by using context and what little is known of language. In the course of time, listening comprehension can be enhanced by the greatest possible use of Russian by the teacher in the course of any class period. This means, for example, that absolutely all formula greetings and instructions (please, thank you, stand up, sit down, pass your paper, be quiet, repeat, etc.) should be in Russian. The teacher's greatest

problem here is to convince himself that he will indeed be understood. (Native speaking teachers should especially be warned against the overuse of English in the Russian class. Students are more interested in unbroken Russian than in broken English.) And soon enough, the students can be expected to use the courtesy words.

Before any formal language ability is expected, Soviet printed materials can be used as a source of information. For instance: newspapers can be examined for current weather reports (where at least the degrees can be read); it is possible to deduce something about Russian radio or television by analyzing the programming; some cartoons involve no words; the date can be deduced from its location in the format of the paper and from the time of year it arrived; the location of the editorial (if one can call it that) can probably be found by comparing several issues, etc. As the unfamiliar alphabet becomes familiar, datelines can actually be read, and personalities can be identified.

Another pre-literate project is the comparison of grade-school textbooks:[12] it is possible to get some information about the people or their expectations from just turning pages and counting things. American and Soviet beginning mathematics books can reveal interesting contrasts, as can high school history books.

Using commands in the target language is one frequently recommended device in beginning efforts at communications, and physical exercises (зарядки) are one very common place to find them. The following terminology can be arranged in varying order, and when students seem to be familiar with the phrases they themselves can conduct the exercises. These commands can also be used in the "Simon says" game.

Stand up Встаньте
Feet apart Ноги в стороны
Feet together Ноги вместе

Hands out to the side Руки в стороны
Hands on hips Руки на пояс
Touch your toes Коснуться пальцев (ноги)
Clap your hands over your head Хлопок над головой
Walk in place Ходьба на месте
Squat Сделаем приседания; присесть...встать
Run in place Бег на месте
Bend your knees Согнуть колени
Breathe in Вдыхайте (вдох, вдохнуть)
Breathe out Выдыхайте (выдох, выдохнуть)
Stand on your toes Подняться на цыпочки (...опуститься)
Jump (in place) Прыжки на месте
Return Вернуться в исходное положение >

Culture and communicative competence can be both acquired and enhanced through printed materials, but they must first be available to be used. Russian classes should have access to: English-Russian, Russian-English, and Russian-Russian dictionaries; a place-name dictionary, a personal-name dictionary; as complete a set of Soviet school texts as is possible (a not unreasonable cost, since they are quite inexpensive); calendars (both Soviet and emigre); as many books in English on Russian history, literature, and economics as the school library is willing to acquire; art and architecture can be in Russian, as can a world atlas; most important is a wide variety of special-interest magazines and booklets on topics such as amateur radio, chess, music, fashions, etc.--the wider the variety the better. (This collection is in addition to the usual Russian classroom paraphernalia: Russian maps and posters, a meter stick, celsius thermometer, tape measure in centimeters, slides, filmstrips and other such usable realia.)

The reason for this supply is to accomodate projects in Russian for each student on a topic that the student finds interesting. If we are to "lead him out" (educate him), we must find him first. The

specifics of the projects will have to depend on the topic chosen, the material available, language level and so on. At first, the amount of information they can glean without any Russian at all is not likely to be great, but what they need to discover is that they can get a lot more than they thought they could.

Other assignments, not necessarily requiring the use of language, could involve such extra-curricular aspects of Russian as going to films, to a Russian restaurant, making Russian foods, attending Russian church ceremonies (including weddings and funerals), investigating travel possibilities and restrictions, and so on. Almost any project in which something less than the whole class is involved should be in some way reported upon so that the others in the class can take advantage of the information. This could mean the maintenance of a classroom notebook, short oral reports, or it could mean a major paper using some Russian theme in connection with another class.

Testing for culture and/or communicative competence can be relatively simple if the teacher keeps in mind the limits of the possible. It is of course possible to test listening comprehension and reading comprehension. It is also possible to test the knowledge of such factual items as where the various republics are located, or who Peter the Great was. It is far more difficult to test adequately the ability to "communicate" with a native Russian. For one thing, few of us have one available to use for this purpose. I have heard of one resourceful teacher who would call up students on the telephone and then ask questions in Russian. And a test item such as "Evaluate the cultural output of a civilization"[13] seems to ask for more than is even divinely possible. I also suspect that the New York Bureau of Foreign Language Education wanted too much when it requested that the Regent's examination be changed so that it "will test the

ability to relate a cultural item in one area to the fabric of the total culture."[14]

Grades will have to be issued as they usually are -- as an educated guess about relative accomplishment. You will probably never find out if you did open any ways to new worlds or whether you made more joy possible in this one. Your only measure will be the number of students that sign up next year, and even then you have an out -- how many people can face even an angel for three years in a row? Eternity has its drawbacks.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Renate A. Schulz and Walter H. Bartz, "Free to communicate," Perspective: A New Freedom, ACTFL Review of Foreign Language Education, 7, ed. Gilbert A. Jarvis (Skokie, Illinois: National Textbook Co., 1975) pp. 47-92. This is surely the first place to look for the latest and most complete information on communication and language learning in the United States. The article suggests that perhaps the greatest deficiencies in the field are in the development of adequate means for testing the ability to communicate, and in the dearth of materials that could be used in teaching communicative competence.

[2] Don Rogers, "How Do I Communicate with You?" ETC: A Review of General Semantics, 30 (1973), 259-63.

[3] Carol Eastman, Aspects of Language and Culture (San Francisco: Chandler and Sharp, 1975), pp. 23, 111. Throughout this review of linguistics and its developing relation to culture, the emphasis by linguists is on the effort to discover a system or sets of relationships. Descriptions are used to illustrate a theory, and do not yet seem to be considered as a worthy end in themselves. One might also wish that as

much anthropologists' time be spent on literate cultures as on pre-literate ones.

[4] Genelle G. Morain, "Cultural Pluralism," Britannica Review of Foreign Language Education, vol. 3, 1970, ed. Dale Lange (Chicago: Encyclopedia Britannica, 1971), pp. 59-95. Also, Howard L. Nostrand, "Empathy for a Second Culture: Motivations and Techniques," Responding to New Realities, ACTFL Review of Foreign Language Education, 5, ed. Gilbert A. Jarvis, (Skokie, Illinois: National Textbook Co., 1974), pp. 263-327.

[5] Nelson Brooks, "Teaching Culture in the Foreign Language Classroom," Foreign Language Annals, 1 (March, 1968), 204-17.

[6] Howard Nostrand, "A Second Culture: New Imperatives for American Education," Foreign Language Teaching: An Anthology, ed. J. Michel (New York: Macmillan, 1966).

[7] Shulz and Bartz, loc. cit.

[8] E. M. Vereshchagin and V. G. Kostomarov, Iazyk i kul'tura (Moscow: MGU, 1973) This book is a fairly detailed exposition of the Soviet view of culture as language known as lingvostranovedenie. In addition to a detailed discussion of the philosophy and methods used, there are enough examples given as to themselves constitute a source of cultural information. (See also their article "Linguocultural Studies and the Linguo-cultural Dictionary," Slavic and East European Journal, 19 (Spring, 1975), 40-48.) The same is true of an earlier booklet Rol' i mesto stranovedeniia v praktike prepodavaniia russkogo iazyka kak inostrannogo, ed. by E. M. Vereshchagin (Moscow: MGU, 1969). An article by A. A. Leont'ev in this collection describes a proposed text, Russkii iazyk bez truda by Leont'ev and Kostomarov, whose specific purpose is to teach communicative competence rather than linguistic competence. Interestingly enough, they refer to it as "tourist language."

[9] Florence Steiner, Performing with Objectives (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1975), p. 125. Her chapter on putting across culture, pp. 115-37, has a number of good suggestions.

[10] See, for example, Frank Ingram, James Nord and Donald Dragt, "A Program for Listening Comprehension," Slavic and East European Journal, 19 (Spring, 1975), 1-10. This is the kind of research and reporting that is sorely needed at all levels of our profession.

[11] George Booth, "IP GISSA GUL," think good thoughts about a pussycat (New York: Dodd, Mead and Co., 1975).

[12] Many useful suggestions can be found in Mary Finocchiaro and Michael Bonomo, The Foreign Language Learner: a Guide for Teachers (New York: Regents Publishing, 1973), pp. 140-146.

[13] Rebecca Valette and Renee S. Disick, Modern Language Performance Objectives and Individualization (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1972), p. 206.

[14] Morain, p. 85.

VERBAL INTERACTION GAMES FOR THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

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When students become so involved in a classroom activity that they begin to argue or tease each other in French or Russian, something unique and exciting has happened. Verbal interaction games are a way to make this happen. They facilitate the transition from textbook drills to real-world communication. A game allows classroom interaction to move in original directions; what students say in the target language is a spontaneous expression of the moment. The outcome is usually a surprise, and often hilarious.

The primary objective of the games described below is to get students talking to each other in the target language. These games are intended to improve speaking fluency and the ability to think in the language. It is essential, therefore, that during a game, errors in grammar or pronunciation not be overtly corrected. The teacher simply offers encouragement and praise. The teacher may, of course, supply a vocabulary item or a verb form to the student who hesitates, or repeat correctly something the student may have said incorrectly. In some games, the teacher may wish to join in the fun and participate with the class.

Most of the games described below are competitive or team games, while the others are activities in which there are no winners or losers. In some of the games it is preferable, in order to involve the entire class, to divide the class into two or more groups which play the game simultaneously. The more time-consuming games may be scheduled for 15 to 20 minutes a day, over a period of three or four days.

The following are some of the games I have found successful for achieving the above-mentioned objectives.

CHITCHAT (all levels)

In this game students will often work unusual words into their improvised dialogues in order to mislead their classmates.

Arrangement: Any number of teams, each composed of two or three students.

Preparation: A word list for the teacher's use.

The teacher whispers a secret word to a team of students. After taking a minute or two to confer, these students must present a dialogue in the target language in which one of them uses the secret word. Other members of the class guess until they correctly identify the secret word. Then the teacher whispers another secret word to the next team, etc., until each team has had a turn. Teams receive one point for each wrong guess by a classmate. The team with the highest score wins.

DETECTIVES (levels 1 and 2)

First-year students enjoy playing this game, especially after they have learned the names of ordinary items of clothing and the colors.

Arrangement: Two teams of "detectives," seated in rows.

Preparation: Large, colorful magazine or catalogue pictures of people dressed in different kinds of clothing. These are the criminal "suspects." Each picture is mounted separately on a piece of light-colored cardboard, and an imaginative name is

printed below each figure. For example, a lady wearing a funny hat could be named "Gospozha Shliapochka." Before class, the cards are taped to a wall or blackboard where everyone can see them. There should be one more picture than there are students. The teacher also prepares small slips of paper, each containing the name of one of the "suspects," and places them in a box. The teacher may wish to provide each student with a supplementary vocabulary list containing any unusual words related to the pictures.

When the game begins, the teacher explains to the class that all of the pleasant-looking people whose pictures they see are really suspected murderers, and that the students are to be detectives. Player Number 1 on Team A draws the "guilty" suspect's name from a box. Player 1 is now the only "witness" to the crime. Members of Team B (the detectives) take turns asking the witness a question in the target language, which may only be answered by yes or no (Is the murderer a woman? Is she wearing something yellow? Is she wearing a hat?). Witnesses must answer truthfully. When a detective thinks he knows the identity of the murderer, he may make an accusation. If he is right, it becomes Team B's turn. Player 1 of Team B then draws a name and the game continues, with team A acting as detectives. If the accuser is wrong, however, Team B continues questioning the witness until someone guesses correctly. When a suspect has been correctly identified, his picture is removed from the display. The game continues until everyone on each

team has had a chance to be a witness, and only one picture remains. To keep the game moving quickly, the teacher should require that each detective ask his question within an allotted time of about twenty seconds. A team is assessed 1 point for each question members ask, and 2 points for false accusations (wrong guesses). The team with the lowest score wins.

STORY CIRCLE (2, 3, 4)

Students create some very funny and preposterous stories in this game in their effort to juxtapose totally unrelated vocabulary words. The teacher may participate with the class in this non-competitive game.

Arrangement: Groups of 6 to 10 students, seated in circles.

Preparation: Slips of paper, each containing one vocabulary word.

The teacher distributes three vocabulary words to each student. The first student begins telling a story in the target language in which he uses one of his three words. He stops at the end of the sentence in which the word appears. The student on his left continues the same story, using one of his words in some sentence, then stopping at the end of that sentence, and so on around the circle. On the second time around the circle, each student uses another of his words. On the third circuit (which usually takes longer) the students work their remaining word into the story.

PASSWORD RELAY (2, 3, 4)

This team game can also serve as a vocabulary review game. A loudly ticking timer will heighten the excitement.

Arrangement: Teams of 6 to 10 students, seated in circles.

Preparation: A number of folded slips of paper, each containing a recent vocabulary word.
One dictionary or master vocabulary list for each team.
A timer.

The teacher provides the captain of each team an equal number of small, folded slips of paper, each containing a vocabulary word. Each captain issues the folded slips to his team members one at a time, as needed. When the game begins, Player 1 on each team looks at his word. If he does not know its meaning, he consults the dictionary. Player 1 then tries to communicate the word, first to Player 2 on his left. Player 1 may do this by means of a definition, synonym, antonym, description, or gesture. In response, Player 2 may say the correct word or, if he does not know it, he may pass by saying "relay." If Player 2 passes, Player 1 tries to communicate the word to Player 3, and so forth around the circle. After a player in the group correctly identifies Player 1's word, Player 2 takes a word from the Captain, and tries to communicate it, beginning with Player 3, and the game continues as before. The other circles of students follow this same procedure concurrently. The game ends when time is up (10 or 20 minutes), or when one team has successfully guessed all its words. The team which has guessed the most words correctly during the game is the winner.

TRUTH OR LIE? (Adv. 2, 3, 4)

This game often has surprising results. The students sometimes speak in the target language much longer than the suggested two minutes. In an effort to trick their classmates they may resort to elaborate detail. Students frequently learn new and unexpected things about each other during this game.

Arrangement: A stool in front of the room.
Preparation: Two 5" x 8" cards per student, with "LIE" printed in large letters on one, "TRUTH" on the other.
A large envelope.
A homework assignment.

As homework, each student has prepared a two-minute anecdote about himself (in the target language) which is either the absolute truth, or a total fabrication. The first student begins by placing in a large envelope the card indicating whether his anecdote is the truth or a lie. He then relates his anecdote, and the class is permitted to ask him three questions about it. The class members vote on whether the student has told the truth or a lie by displaying the appropriate card. The student then reveals the correct answer, often to the amazement of his classmates. For each incorrect vote by a classmate the student receives one point. The student with the highest score is the winner.

CELEBRITY TALK SHOW (Adv. 2, 3, 4)

In this game, students imitate their favorite celebrities and are interviewed by their classmates. Much of the humor results from the fact that classmates

write the interview questions before knowing which celebrity will be answering them.

Arrangement: Four chairs in front of the room.
Preparation: Blank slips of paper.

Each student writes on a slip of paper the name of a "celebrity" about whom the student knows enough to imitate. The celebrity may be a figure from history, television, fiction, movies, government, comic books, sports, or folklore (for example, Winnie the Pooh, Superman, Olga Korbut, Ivan the Terrible, the Easter Bunny). The slips of paper are collected by the teacher and placed in a box. For later use, during his turn as host, each student prepares three typical interview questions (What is your favorite movie?; What was your most embarassing moment?; What do you do for a living?). The teacher then selects a volunteer to be the talk show host. The host draws three names from the box, and introduces these "guests" to the "audience." The appropriate students come forward, and take their places. The host then asks his three questions, and the guests must respond in character. A new host is selected, three new guests are chosen, and the sequence is repeated until everyone has been interviewed.

Variation 1

Each student writes on a slip of paper his own name and the name of a celebrity he has chosen to imitate. The game proceeds as above, except that the host invites the student to the front without using the celebrity name, and the class tries to guess the identity of the celebrities from their answers to the host's questions.

Variation 2

The teacher or students select a familiar movie, book, story, TV series, or historical event. Volunteers are chosen to portray characters associated with the story or event. A student host then introduces the guests to the class for impromptu questioning about their role in the event. For example, if the guests are the Karamazov brothers, students might ask them about their parts in their father's murder.

COMMERCIALS (2, 3, 4)

In this game, student contributions may range from the usefully descriptive to the wildly imaginative. As in the other games, it is a good idea to select a bright or outgoing student to begin, so that the game gets off to a fast start, and so other students have a good model to follow.

Arrangement: None

Preparation: A box containing a number of diverse items (an apple, a feather, a piece of string, a penny, etc.).

The first student reaches into the box and withdraws an item. He must then come to the front of the room and "sell" this "product" to the class in the target language. A student might say, for example, "Buy this apple. It is red. It is delicious. You can eat it for lunch." In a more creative mood, the student might say, "Buy this poison apple. You can give it to your Russian teacher when you have too much homework." The game continues until everyone has had a chance to "sell" an item.

Variation 1

The student brings an unusual item from home to "sell."

Variation 2

The student "sells" a recently learned vocabulary word, drawn from slips of paper prepared in advance by the teacher. This variation permits a wider range of "products," and can result in some very funny commercials for such things as "boiling water," "a scar," "truth," or "a whale."

ESPIONAGE (3, 4)

In this game teammates use a secret code to help communicate key words to each other in the target language. Even the teacher may be mystified as the jubilant members of a team baffle their opponents by the clever use of their code.

Arrangement: Teams of 5 or 6 players each. Each team sits in a row, facing an opposing team.

Perparation: Small slips of paper with diverse, but fairly simple vocabulary words.

Before the game begins, team members meet and decide on three code words or expressions that only they will know, and that will be useful to them in conveying information about any vocabulary word. For example, one team may agree to use, as one part of its secret code, the expression "kak skuchno" to indicate that the target word is opposite in meaning to some word in the next sentence. Thus, during the game, if the target word were kholodno, Player 1 could say,

"Kak skuchno. Mne zdes' kholodno." His team members would then know that the target word is most likely the opposite of kholodno.

After each team has decided on its three code words or expressions, the teacher distributes vocabulary words, one to each member of the opposing team. He may use his team's secret code, together with other verbal clues, to do this. Any member of either Team A or B may attempt to guess the word at any time. Members of Team A will, of course, have an advantage, since they understand the code. However, Team B will try to break the code. If a member of Team A correctly guessts Player 1-A's word, it becomes Player 2-A's turn. If a member of Team B correctly guesses Team A's word first, it becomes Team B's turn. Team B then begins communicating its assigned key words using its own code, etc. Each correct guess scores one point for a team. The first team to earn a predetermined number of points wins the game. Note: If the game is being played for the first time, teams should be allowed one opportunity during the game to revise their code.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Not only are students enthusiastic about these verbal interaction games, but teachers who try them report a renewal of their own enthusiasm. The teacher who develops an awareness of the further possibilities for verbal interaction games will find that the best games grow naturally out of the teacher's own relationship with students.

LANGUAGE GAMES FOR ALL OCCASIONS

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Although the theme of this symposium is communicative competence, only some of the games presented below are specifically intended to teach primarily that skill. Others can be used to teach vocabulary or specific grammar points, or factual information about geography, history, etc. For some of the games, however, no other claim can be made than that they provide enjoyable activity for the students, and frequently for the teacher also. The latter type of games are especially useful as substitute fillers on those (rare) occasions that the Russian language teacher is out of the classroom.

The first two games have to do with geography. Their purpose, in addition to teaching geographical facts, is to teach Russian names for countries, states or republics, and cities. They can also be used to teach compass directions (something is located на юге от something else), or adverbs (далеко от, ближе к, etc), or the use of the prepositional case (Рим в Италии.), etc.

THE SOVIET UNION DISJOINED

After having studied the names and the location of the fifteen republics of the USSR, draw a map with the republics disjoined and scrambled. The tasks for the students can be 1) to associate names of the republics from a list provided with the shapes of the republics, 2) to provide the names from memory, or 3) to arrange the republics in their proper place.

The same can, of course, be done with a map of the United States, or the map of Europe or one of the other continents. Only the Russian versions of the place names should be used.

THE SOVIET UNION SCRAMBLED

Provide the students with lists of Russian cities, rivers, or other place names with the letters scrambled. The tasks can be to unscramble the letters to find the correct sequence, and then to find the city, river, etc. on the map. The same can, of course, be done with maps of other areas.

VOCABULARY GAMES

The next group of games are primarily useful as aids in memorizing new vocabulary and phrases. They are more effective when constructed so as to correspond to a specific unit, dialog, reading passage, etc.

CRYPTOGRAM

In the following cryptogram, you are to try to decipher the words listed in part one. These words would be very easy for you to recognize, except for the fact that they are Russian words written on an English typewriter. Each letter has been consistently replaced by another letter. When you have finished deciphering the words in part one, go on to Part two and replace the letters in the same way from part one. If you are correct, two Russian proverbs will appear. The first word is given to get you started.

R F K N F	H A P I A
X B N F N M	- - - - - -
½ J H J I J	- - - - - -
G J T P L	- - - - -
P L H F D C N D E Q N T	- - - - - - - - - - - - -
U J H J L	- - - - -
F V T H B R F Z T W	- - - - - - - - - -
K T R W B Y	- - - - - -
D J C R H T C T Z M T	- - - - - - - - - - -
L J V F I Z Y Y	- - - - - - - -

K É X I T G J́ P L Z J X T V Z B R J U L F́

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

G J D N J H T́ Z B T - V F N M E X T́ Z B Y

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

WORD MAZE

Many of the new words from this unit are contained in this maze. See if you can find them all and see how many other words you can find.

К Л А С С Х М О Р О Й И Н Д Е Л С О П Ш
О Н А П С И ы С А Л Э К З П А М Е О Н П
У Ч И Т Ь П Я В Ч К Е Р А В О Е С Ь О Д
В С Р Я С Л П Л А Ж Е М Ь Я Р Л А Л Б О
Т О А Е Т Я Н К Б Е Ь Т ы Ч Е И У Т А Л
И Г М ы Л Ж Т Б С У Ц Д Е З М Ч З Ч Д Е
С О Ь Е В О С В Я Я Ю З А И И М У П И Р
И Т Д Х Л О Д С С И Т В Е Т К Н А М К Т
А Е К Ь Т О В Е С Ь Т Л Ь Ь К О У В А С
Н М К Е С Т М Ь В Р Р Е М Я Й Ц О Н Я К
П О З А В Ч Е Р А П О Ч И Т Ь Р О Л М Е
Э Р Т О Г О Т Я Ь П О М О Г Т А Л П Б Р
А К Т У Р И А Б Т П О Л У Ч А Т Ь И О Т
А Т Ь В О С А Д И У Ч Т О В С ы Д С Е Л
А Л И Р В Ь В П О С Л Е Д Н И Й Р А З Е

WORD SEARCH

З Д Е В Я Т Ь А Я Д О Л И Н А А Ю Б
А Р М И Ю А О М О В З Д Е С Ь Н Н Г
К Д Д Р Е М И В Е Д Е Т И А Ж Г В З
Р У Ю Е И Е Е Ь Т А Р Б М К Б Л С О
О Н И В Б Р А Т А И О С В Н И И Р Т
Й Ь Н Д Е И Г О Р О Д Т О И Б Й Е В
Т Л А П О К А Ж И Т Е Р К Т Л С Д Е
Е И Д О К А Ю Д Я Д Л О З Р И К Е Ч
Б Б Ш Ж Е Н У В Ы М Ш П А А О И С А
А О Д А С К Н С С Е А О Л К Т Й Я Й
Б М О Л В У П Е Щ Е Д Р Р С Б Т Т Т
У О К У Т С Л А Г У Н Э Ф Ь И Х Ь Е
Ш Т А Й Ц Д О М Ч О А А Т Ч У В И Ж
К В К С Ш Л У Р О Г Р У З О В И К Щ
У А Д Т Л Б Л У З К А А Ь Д Д А Ь З
Л Ь Ю А М Е Р И К У К Ч У Р Э Т В А
А Н И Ю К Я Ш О Ф Е Р К Л А С С Е Д
Н Е Л О Б Е Д Г А З Е Т У Х К Ь Ч Р
Р Д Г А Ы А Р Е Н О И Ц И Л И М Е Е
У О Н Ь Т И К А В С Т Р И Ю Е Е Р С
Ж Д А Т Ь В И Д Е Т Ь Т Е Д И С В Е

видеть
галстук
гора
грузовик
долина
его
ее
еще
закройте
их
картинка
кого
лес
милиционер
озеро
отвечайте
откройте
перевод
пожалуйста
покажите
река
сад
сидеть
шофер
классе
как
иду
имя
дети
дочь
дядю
деревню
дороги
дома
Данию
жить
здесь
живу
газету
где
гору
день
да
жену
доски
девять

десять
двери
вот
ваши
вино
автомобиль
аэропорт
Англию
это
брата
блузка
брать

вы
вечер
они
журнал
семь
алло
Америку
армию
карандаш
болен
быть
все

два
ты
ваш
вокзал
авторучку
американец
милиционера
Австрию
бабушку
библиотеку
ждать
все

SCRABBLE

A Russian Scrabble set can be purchased from some large department stores (Marshall Field, for example). The rules are the same as for English. A way to build up a passive vocabulary as well as basic word formations is to allow the students to team up and use a dictionary. A time limit must be established, or turns are interminable.

HANG THE BUTCHER

The rules for this game are simple: a gallows is drawn on the board. One student chooses a word and draws a blank for each letter in the word under the gallows. Students take turns guessing letters to fit the blanks. If a letter is correct, the letter is written in all the corresponding blanks. If the letter is wrong, a part of the body is put up on the gallows and the letter written next to the gallows. If the body is completed before the word is guessed, the student at the board wins. If the word is guessed, the class wins and the student who guessed the word chooses a new word and continues the game. Words should be limited to those contained in the lessons covered up to that time. A variation of this game is to use phrases from dialogs instead of words. In that case the students would guess words instead of letters.

WORDS IN A WORD

This can be a game for teams or for individuals. A word is given to the students and the students are to find as many words as possible contained within the given word. Letters can be used as often as they appear within the given word. After each word is completed,

all letters are available again.
EXAMPLE: женщина жена, щи, ниже, Нина, же, etc.

WORDS PER MINUTE

This is a game for teams or individuals. The teacher gives a letter to the students. The students are to try to list as many words beginning with that letter as they can. Scoring is accomplished by disqualifying any misspelled words and eliminating any words duplicated by anyone else. The student or team with the most words is the winner. A variation of this game is to give the final letter rather than the initial letter.

GUESS IT

A category is chosen before the beginning of the game. The first person (the one to select the category) gives a phrase, such as "Когда мы поедем в Москву, мы возьмем с собой... ." An example might be : "Когда мы поедем в Москву, мы возьмем с собой яблоки." The person to give this, in this case has the Russian name Яков. Each succeeding person must choose an object which has the same initial letter as his first name. Other categories might include:

1. Numbers - take something with a genitive singular noun. Nouns may vary, but not the case.
2. Nouns with only one vowel (even repeated), such as карандаш, книги.
3. Nouns with more than one of the same consonant such as банан, дедушка.
4. Irregular nouns only.
5. Soft consonant adjectives.

Many possible further groups can be formed. Each player in turn must give some word - if it is correct, he can "go", if not, he must continue to guess when his turn comes. The game does not have a winner, but the loser is the last one to understand the process. This can be ego-deflating for the slower students.

GUESS THE OBJECT

A student is selected to leave the room. The rest of the students select an object from known vocabulary within a category (classroom, living room, dining room, etc.) The student is to come back into the room and guess the object without directly asking about it. He must ask only yes or no questions on the order of "Is it red?", "Is it bigger than a book?", etc. The answers to these questions are "холодно, тепло, холоднее, теплее". When the victim feels he knows the answer, he may guess the specific object. He is only allowed three direct guesses. The student to guess the object fastest is the winner.

THE BODY: SCRAMBLED LETTERS

The following words have been scrambled. Try to unscramble them and match them up with the English equivalents:

1.	кяру	chest
2.	нипса	eyebrow
3.	дугрь	shoulder
4.	кдрбпдоооо	arm
5.	хоу	leg
6.	элаг	ear
7.	токоль	skin
8.	вборь	back
9.	гона	hair

10.	соловы	heart
11.	овагло	eye
12.	цредес	neck
13.	быгу	nose
14.	тро	chin
15.	яше	elbow
16.	сон	tongue
17.	чепло	tooth
18.	жако	mouth
19.	якзы	lips
20.	буз	head

FAMILY TREE

This is a game to exercise the genitive endings, names of family members and reasoning. Students are to write the answer on their papers. The student with the most correct answers is the winner. Questions could be:

Кто мать дяди вашего двоюродного брата?
Кто жена отца матери вашей тети?
Кто дочь дочери отца вашего отца?
Кто сын дочери племянника вашей матери?
Кто жена брата дяди вашего отца?
Кто единственный внук отца вашего дяди?
Кто единственная тетя дочери сына вашей матери?
Кто дочь сына брата бабушки вашего сына?
Кто сын племянника вашей матери?

BASEBALL

This game is set up on a team basis. The material to use must be set up beforehand in four degrees of difficulty. For example, when nouns are being reviewed, the first level of difficulty might be the Russian equivalent of a given noun. The second level of

difficulty might then be a grammatical description of the noun (masculine, fem., etc., hard ending, regular, etc.). The third level of difficulty could be giving all singular forms of the noun. The fourth level of difficulty would then be all of the above, plus plural forms of the noun and it being used in a sentence in a non-nominative form. The game is set up with the teacher as the "pitcher". The teams arrange a "batting order" and one of the teams is "at bat". The first "batter" is given a question (in this case an English noun) and the "batter" must reply. If he chooses not to answer, a "strike" is called, and another question is given. Three "strikes" and the student is "out". The student is to try to go as far as he can. If he makes a mistake, then he is "out". If he gets the first level, he goes to "first base", and for each succeding level of difficulty he advances one "base". If he is on base when another player is up, he is forced to move. If he is on base when his team gets three "outs", he loses his place. Runs are scored by players crossing "home base". Rules may vary to fit the class and the material being covered. A variation may be to have the "batter" instead of the "pitcher" decide on the level of difficulty for the following "pitch".

MY WORD

Each team chooses a word. The number of letters is set in advance (first round, three letters; second round, four letters; third round, five letters). Teams ask each other the word by giving another word. The answering team must tell how many letters the two words have in common. For each letter in common five points are scored. If the letter is in the same location in both words, 20 points are scored. After five guesses

by each side, the score is added up and high score wins. If the word is guessed a 100 point bonus is added.

Example:		points			points
Team 1	рука		Team 2	яйцо	
guess 1	поле	0		перо	5
guess 2	зонт	5		один	5
guess 3	цирк	5		пруд	10
guess 4	твой	10		река	60
guess 5	твоя	10		рука	100
totals		30			180
					wins

MISCELLANEOUS GAMES

GALLOPING POLL

This is not a competitive game, but rather a get-acquainted game. Each student is to choose one question to ask all the other students (such as when is your birthday, what's your favorite color, your favorite program, etc.). All students turn in their questions to the teacher (to eliminate duplication, not to censor). The students then have to ask all others their question. After all questions have been asked (all questions are asked one-to-one, not as a formal group), the results are given, either from the question or from the individual.

RUSSIAN TRIVIA

This can be an interesting and embarrassing experience for the teacher. Students are to ask "trivia" questions dealing with what they have learned in the Russian class. This is not meant to deal strictly with grammar, dialogs, etc., but more with cultural and trivial asides that have come up. If needed for action, a point system can

be set up for those students who ask questions that the other students can't answer. Extra points should be scored if the teacher can't answer.

SIMON SAYS

This is basically the same game as in English, but directions are given in Russian. A condition must be set up under which the students do or don't follow the instructions. If a student fails to follow the instructions, or follows the instructions when the conditions are not met, he is out. If the grammar is incorrect, students are not to follow the directions, or if the instructions are given in English, they are not to be followed. The last student involved is the winner.

TWENTY QUESTIONS

One student (or the teacher)chooses an object or person and the class may ask twenty questions to try to discover it. The questions must only require a yes or no answer.

FAMOUS RUSSIANS

Identify the following famous Russians by matching the two groups:

a. developed modern geometry
b. classified the chemical elements
c. developed a system for classifying climates
d. received the Nobel Prize for work on the composition of blood
e. developed the theory of photosynthesis
f. invented the electric arc lamp
g. father of Russian aviation

h. experimented with conditioned reflexes
i. rocket pioneer
j. invented radio-telegraphy
k. built and flew first four-engine plane
l. won Nobel Prize for the theory of chain reactions
m. famous for work with low temperatures
n. wrote Eugene Onegin
o. wrote A Hero of our Times
p. composed A Life for the Tsar
q. composed the 1812 Overture
r. painted The Volga Boatmen
s. wrote Dead Souls
t. wrote Fathers and Sons
u. wrote Crime and Punishment
v. wrote War and Peace
w. wrote The Cherry Orchard
x. wrote The Lower Depths
y. modern Russian painter
z. composer and pianist
aa. composer and director
bb. wrote The Bedbug
cc. wrote Quiet Flows the Don
dd. wrote Doctor Zhivago
ee. wrote The Gulag Archipelago
ff. wrote Peter and the Wolf
gg. wrote the Sabre Dance
hh. contemporary composer of symphonies

- -

1. Александр Войков
2. Михаил Глинка
3. Николай Гоголь
4. Максим Горький
5. Федор Достоевский
6. Николай Жуковский
7. Василий Кандинский
18. Александр Пушкин
19. Сергей Рахманинов
20. Илья Репин
21. Николай Семенов
22. Игорь Сикорский
23. Александр Солженицын
24. Игорь Стравинский

8. Петр Капица
9. Михаил Лермонтов
10. Николай Лобачевский
11. Владимир Маяковский
12. Дмитрий Менделеев
13. Илья Мечников
14. Иван Павлов
15. Борис Пастернак
16. Александр Попов
17. Сергей Прокофьев
25. Климент Тимирязев
26. Лев Толстой
27. Иван Тургенев
28. Арам Хачатурян
29. Константин Циолковский
30. Петр Чайковский
31. Антон Чехов
32. Михаил Шолохов
33. Дмитрий Шостакович
34. Павел Яблочков

THE ROLE OF VALUES CLARIFICATION IN DEVELOPING COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE IN RUSSIAN*

Birute Lanys

The fact that the foreign language curriculum in schools today is in trouble should come as no surprise to any of us. Not only has the language requirement been eliminated in many institutions,[1] but students are increasingly beginning to feel that foreign languages, and all the work involved in learning them, are irrelevant to their daily lives--their interests, concerns and problems--as well as to their future. Moreover, they are frustrated, because even after long hours spent in foreign language study, they cannot really communicate what they want or need to say. As a result, and perhaps quite appropriately, enrollments are steadily decreasing, and the drop-out rate is steadily increasing. We must begin to reexamine the role and objectives of foreign language study, and restructure our classroom activities accordingly, or more of us may soon find ourselves without jobs in public schools. One "ray of light" in the bleak and depressing position in which foreign language teachers find themselves today may be provided by the so-called values clarification approach.[2]

THE VALUES CLARIFICATION APPROACH

In the wake of the turbulence of the 1960's there

* I am indebted to Ms. Carol Bond, Head of the Department of Modern Languages, University High School, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, for introducing me to this concept and for her unflagging encouragement and guidance in helping me to develop the right attitude and adapt the material for use in my classes.

followed a real quest for "relevance" in education on the part of educators and students alike. There was an increasing demand for a personalized learning environment, where the teacher's primary responsibility is the concerns and needs of the students. Teachers should not be content to teach their own particular subject matter. After all, we are teaching students, first and foremost. Within the scope of his own particular, limited field, the teacher's focus should be on the student as a person: to help the student become aware of himself, realize his own potential, to help him become a better decision-maker and a better functioning human being. All too often, classroom activities seem irrelevant and far removed from what is going on in students' daily lives. Everyone regularly comes across situations and problems which demand opinions, decisions, and actions--sometimes casual, at other times critical--based on beliefs, attitudes, and values that they hold, either consciously or unconsciously. Our students face these same problems, but often (no less so than adults) are not even clear about their own values on which their choices must be made.

To meet this demand for a more "humanistic" education, many educators have appealed to the values clarification approach, formulated by Louis Raths, who in turn based his work on the ideas of John Dewey. This approach is an attempt to help students answer some of the questions and solve some of the problems that occur in their daily lives. It is an attempt to help them in thinking through and establishing their own values system. The focus of the values clarification approach is not the content of people's values, but the process of valuing; the aim is not one of instilling any particular set of values, but of helping students to think about how and why they

hold certain beliefs and opinions, why they behave as they do, make the decisions they make, and what influences their goals and hopes for the future. Thus, the approaches and strategies used are ones that will help students realize these things about themselves, communicate and defend their beliefs and actions, and consider alternatives.

THE ROLE OF THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CURRICULUM

Since the aim of the values clarification approach is to encourage students to communicate their ideas and interact with others in order to become better aware of themselves and their own value system, we are in a good position. Foreign language teachers, after all, are in the "business" of teaching communication. Within the context of our classroom activities, we have a perfect opportunity and setting for utilizing strategies that have been developed. Moreover, we can make use of these exercises not only to meet the students' need for self-awareness, but for our own purposes as well.

By giving the student something meaningful (and perhaps enjoyable) to communicate, he can, from the very beginning, see Russian as a valuable tool for self-expression. By using some of these techniques, the student can become more involved in communication activities and participate more readily, since he has something that he really wants to contribute. If the proper atmosphere is established, he will not be inhibited by his insecurity in the language, and without being aware that he is actually learning a language, he will be using it to convey his thoughts. Moreover, because he is using the language to express something that is of personal interest and import for him, retention should be enhanced. Indeed, because

of this unique role of foreign language study in the curriculum--teaching communication--the foreign language classroom may very well be the only setting where the student has this important opportunity.

If one of our objectives for Russian study is the ability to communicate freely in the language (and in my experience this was the primary goal of most students),[3] we must structure our activities in such a way as to lead to facility in oral expression. However, when we examine the process and results of teaching the oral skill, what do we find our students learning to say in, for example, a two-year course which is based on most of the popular texts? The dialogs, questions, and dialog adaptations are artificial, even though they are necessary and the authors have tried to make them realistic. The material sets up artificial situations to which the students find it difficult to relate, and which all too often will be of little use or practical application in ordinary conversation. If one of our students goes to the USSR or meets a Russian visitor in the U.S., will he ever use the phrases he has so carefully memorized and used and reused in class? How many times have you been called upon to say "Все были в шубах, в теплых валенках, в меховых шапках" or "Живу в избе, недалеко от Ангары"? More often than not, when faced with an opportunity or need to communicate in Russian, the student will be asked about his feelings, interests, opinions and beliefs. He will have to state, explain, and defend his actions and position on certain issues. However, in the course of dialog memorization and adaptation, much of the material has little bearing on his personal life and is of little practical application for the type of communication he will be called upon to use. The pattern drills used and overused every day in our classes call forth the same criticism, perhaps even

more so, for they allow for very little creativity in the responses required.

This is not a condemnation or a call for the abolition of these classroom procedures. But we must put them in their proper place. Have we teachers, in the process of using these techniques to teach grammatical structures and vocabulary, lost sight of our goals? Has the means of communication become an end in itself? If the goal of Russian study is indeed to develop communicative competence, we must always keep in mind that grammar (and all the processes involved in learning and internalizing grammatical structures) is only a preparation, albeit a necessary one, for meaningful communication.

Grammar and vocabulary acquisition, as I have already indicated, are indispensable parts of the language curriculum, and must remain so. Wilga Rivers has defined a number of choices (or levels of choice) that are made in each linguistic utterance.[4] At the lowest level, the student has "zero-choice," that is, there is only one correct way in which something can be said. This level incorporates such things as gender agreement, conjugation, declension, etc. It is at this stage that grammar preparation and "automatic responses," based on pattern drills, are necessary. At the second level, the student has a minimal choice to make, that is, a choice of a particular structure or vocabulary item (as opposed to another one, which would be equally appropriate), by which to convey his meaning; in other words, how he wants to express his idea. It is at the third and highest (and most important) level of choice, however, that our students get very little training. This choice is free and wide-open, wherein the student must decide what it is he wants to say. Because of the understandable insecurity a student feels in using the target language

he will, in most cases, say the easiest thing he can, the utterance in which he has the lowest chance of error, whether it really conveys his thoughts or not. We, as foreign language teachers, all too often teach our students to lie in order to avoid grammatical mistakes. It is precisely this most vital aspect of communication that is relatively neglected in our race to finish the book, or teach all the grammar that is expected by the end of the year. The gap between acquisition of structure and vocabulary and spontaneous communication is a wide one indeed, and one which can and must be narrowed beginning with the early stages of language learning. We must, from the very beginning, prepare our students to express what they really want or need to--to communicate their feelings, thoughts, opinions, interests, goals, and aspirations--with facility and fluency in Russian.

With all these factors as a background, I am offering a proposal to supplement our normal activities with strategies based on the values clarification approach. It seems to me that we Russian teachers can make good use of these exercises to meet the needs of our students, as well as our own objective of communicative competence. They can be used to reinforce and help internalize and retain, in a way meaningful to the student, new vocabulary items and grammatical structures that have already been taught. They can serve to motivate our more silent or insecure students to express their thoughts and feelings. And, at a more advanced stage, they can be used as an impetus for animated discussion. This approach is not meant to take the place of any of our daily procedures; it is offered as a supplement to be used as often (five minutes a day, every few days, twenty minutes a week?) as deemed necessary or possible by the teacher.

GUIDELINES

In order to make as effective use as possible of this approach, a few guidelines must be adhered to if we are to attain our goal of teaching communicative skills. In the beginning, students might be reluctant to participate as openly as we might like, but if the right atmosphere is established and encouraged, the proposed guidelines followed, and linguistic preparation realized, students should soon learn that it is indeed safe to share their thoughts, feelings, and actions. This would lead into more involvement and a greater readiness to participate. For the most positive results, the objectives and rules should be made clear to the students before starting values clarification strategies.

The best setting for most of the exercises is a circle, no larger than sixteen students, less if possible. A larger class can be divided, one group participating in the circle, while the other reads or writes. Alternatively (after several circles have been used successfully), the teacher can choose a student who will adhere to the rules--and has a good working knowledge of the language--to lead the other group. After students have become comfortable with the activities and atmosphere of the circle, the groups should be varied. Depending on the type of strategy to be used, students can be asked to find people they do not ordinarily talk to and form a group. With some of the strategies given, natural groups will be formed, or students can simply count off by two's. For some strategies, the same group could be retained for a short time. For other strategies, those that demand less active participation, the class need not be divided up. The teacher is the best judge in all of these cases.

The atmosphere and attitudes in a communication circle are a vital factor in the success or failure of these activities. We must do all we can to avoid any fear or inhibition on the part of the student in responding honestly and frankly. Before asking students to be honest and risk sharing of themselves (or sharing the kind of information called for in some of the strategies), there must be a great amount of trust and respect shown towards all participants. If students think that something they say about their own beliefs and behaviors will be scorned, or even judged in some way, they will not be open in their answers, and some might be reluctant to participate. The point that must be clarified from the very beginning is that participants must listen, understand, and accept--not evaluate--each others' responses. The teacher must be a good model, he must listen and think carefully about the responses, and react to them in a non-judgmental manner (both verbally and non-verbally). So as not to inhibit honest participation, an atmosphere of candor, respect, sincerity, and trust must be developed. Students must be assured (in words as well as actions) that their responses will not only be respected and accepted, but will be kept under strict confidence. (No "sharing" in the faculty lounge or office!) Students must always feel that they are being listened to, and they must learn to respect opposing views.

Participation in values clarification activities should always be voluntary. It is essential that students be given the option to pass on certain questions or statements, without fear of disapproval on the part of the teacher. There are, after all, certain feelings and actions that are just too personal or too emotionally-charged to be candidly shared with a group, and the teacher must be sensitive to this. Students' right to privacy must be respected just as much as their

opinions. Silence, moreover, does not necessarily indicate that learning is not taking place; the student is, at the very least, developing his listening skills. The teacher should be a participant, as frank and as sincere as he expects his students to be, perhaps even more so, willing to share his own values (and his confusion about them), but not impose them. Depending on the strategy being used, the teacher can respond either in the beginning (to show that he is being as open as he expects students to be) or, where the danger of looking for teacher approval may exist, at the end (to give students a chance to first express their own views, and frank through their own values). Again, the teacher is the best judge here, as long as he remembers that nothing should be done to inhibit responses.

Responses and participation in communication circles must not be graded, for grading is a form of evaluation, and that is precisely what we are trying to avoid. Grading also will inhibit students from really expressing their true feelings in whatever way they can. Nor should grammatical errors be corrected within the context of the circle. If a mistake is made, the teacher should repeat the answer correctly (and, of course, non-judgmentally). If common errors occur, they should be written down (preferably after the activity or at least surreptitiously) for later discussion and clarification, but they should never be related to the values clarification strategy in which they occurred. Otherwise, students will feel insecure in their responses, afraid to participate again, lest their mistake be noticed and they appear foolish. If strategies are chosen in the right way, chance of error should be minimized, so correction should not pose a great problem.

Communication circles must <u>not</u> be used to teach new grammatical structures, but to give a structure

already learned meaning to the students, so that they can use it as a tool for expressing something that is important to them. Values clarification strategies, therefore, can be used as a means of reinforcement and internalization of grammar already learned. Moreover, when choosing an exercise--particularly with beginning students--the teacher must be absolutely sure that students are linguistically prepared to respond, both in terms of new vocabulary and structure. Lack of knowledge is a powerful inhibitor. While it should not be used to actively teach new vocabulary, as long as the structure is well understood, the circle can be used to supplement a student's existing vocabulary. New vocabulary items can and should be added so that students are not hampered in their attempt to express their feelings. (A list of words expressing different shades of feeling would be particularly valuable.) A prepared vocabulary sheet containing anticipated vocabulary items would be desirable; quick and free access to a dictionary should be available. The teacher, of course, should always be prepared to provide necessary information; hence, the necessity of choosing strategies wisely and anticipating responses. For beginning students, or on topics where particular vocabulary items and structure are not yet sufficiently internalized, the teacher must be extremely careful in his choices of exercises. Since errors are not corrected in communication circles, in order to minimize probability of error and maximize probability of response, students should have adequate linguistic preparation for more sophisticated tasks--those that demand explanation or discussion, or deal with more topical situations. In the beginning, strategies which call for repetition, agreement or disagreement, rank order, etc.--i.e., those which demand no new information, just a position on information given--should be uti-

lized. Aside from providing listening comprehension exercises, repetition, and manipulation of given forms (which is still communication), they can also serve--by providing necessary information--to lead into exercises which call for more open responses, explanation, or discussion.

INFORMATION ON USE OF STRATEGIES

Many of these questions and statements are probably nothing original or novel to you; in all likelihood you use them frequently in your classes. What I am proposing, however, is a different background and atmosphere for their use.

No special attempt has been make at a particular order for these lists. Basically, the easier ones, or those which call for a more limited response are first. Hence, they may be less sophisticated, but nevertheless, call for some thought. I have not included many more probing, personal, or topical questions (e.g., politics, social and environmental problems, morality, the women's movement, etc.), because most of these demand a more extensive vocabulary and advanced knowledge of structure. Statements and questions of this type could be easily incorporated in more advanced classes, or with the use of prepared vocabulary sheets. At the appropriate level, an animated discussion is likely to ensue.

Some of the suggestions are grouped according to topic, but do not necessarily have to be used together. One method of implementation would be to choose a topic, perhaps one which corresponds to the topic of the unit in the text, and move through the first four strategies given (values continuum, either-or forced choice, rank order, are you someone who...) before asking for sentence completion, free response, and discussion. Questions are interchangeable; a

statement given in rank order, for instance, can also be used for incomplete sentences, etc. Variations for use of suggested statements are listed on pages 84-86.

With the first four strategies the basic vocabulary and structure are given, requiring the student to give a complete response by repeating and manipulating the given forms in order to convey his feelings and opinions. These exercises can serve to reinforce new vocabulary and structures by using them in a way meaningful to the student. They also help to prepare students linguistically for the exercises that follow, the more open-ended strategies which call for original responses. To ensure active listening on the part of the others, when the task is completed, they could be asked to recall each others' responses. If appropriate, the exercises can be followed up by questions, asking students to clarify, defend, and discuss their position. Some of the best follow-up questions are not necessarily the prearranged ones, but those that occur spontaneously, while actively listening to each student's response.

All of the six strategies for which examples are given can be used as often as desired, using different questions, while some of the same questions can be repeated after the passage of some time period, to make students aware of any changes that have occurred in their thinking. For the most part, strategies given on pages 87-92, because of their nature, can be used only once with the same group.

БОЛЕЕ ИЛИ МЕНЕЕ

The values continuum can serve to visually open up the range of alternatives possible on any given issue, idea, or feeling. It can help students to realize the variation in thinking that exists, and encourage them to move away from stereotypes and black-and-white thinking. It should encourage them to become more open to differences of opinion and less likely to generalize. It is also a way of helping students to state publicly their opinions, beliefs and feelings.

The teacher draws a line on the board, putting two opposite positions on either end. Each student goes to the board, and in answer to the question, marks and initials his place on the line, repeating the answer or statement as he does so. He can explain it if he is able to or wants to. This can also be done by drawing an imaginary line across the classroom and asking students to stand at the position which corresponds to their feeling. (This is a good way to form groups for discussions.)

Где вы находитесь на этой линии?

1. Как дела?

   _____

   хорошо плохо

2. Вы обычно завтракаете?

   _____

   всегда никогда

3. Что вы обычно делаете?

   _____

   говорю слушаю

4. Вы называете взрослых по именам?

   _____

   всегда никогда

5. С кем вы любите ездить на каникулы?

со семьей — с друзьями

6. Как часто вы смотрите телевизор?

всегда — никогда

7. Что вы любите есть?

все на столе — я очень разборчив

8. Что вы делаете со своими деньгами?

все откладываю — все трачу или раздаю

9. Сколько вы помогаете другим?

даже не стоит меня просить — всегда и всем готов помогать

10. Как часто вы делаете то, что вы любите делать?

все время — никогда

11. Сколько свободы вы имеете?

все для меня решено — всегда и все решаю для себя

12. Сколько свободы вы хотели бы иметь?

чтобы все для меня было решено — все решать для себя

13. Чтобы быть счастливым, нужны деньги. — Деньги совсем не нужны для счастья.

14. Я знаю, кто я. — Я не знаю, кто я.

15. Я люблю давать другим. — Я люблю получать от других.

16. Когда я жду, я очень терпелив. — Я совсем не могу ждать.

17. _____

Я всегда опаздываю. Я всегда прихожу вовремя.

18. _____

Все что я знаю я научил в школе. вне школы

19. _____

Я люблю быть с друзьями Я люблю быть одним.

20. _____

Мои друзья должны быть такими, как и я. Мои друзья должны отличаться от меня.

A good follow-up question to some of these might be:

Хотите ли вы это изменить? Где на линии?

ИЛИ...ИЛИ

This task asks the student to decide between two competing alternatives which show characteristics with which he can identify. The exercise involves an examination of his feelings, values, and self-concepts.

The questions can be answered orally, moving around the circle. If appropriate, the student can be asked why he chose a particular alternative. For a more visual effect, the teacher can point the choices on either side of the room, and the student, after responding orally, moves to the side with which he identifies. This is a good way of forming new groups, and at more advanced levels, the student can find partners or small groups on the side he has chosen, with whom he can discuss the reasons for his choice, or the two sides could debate the merits of their choices.

К чему вы больше настроены?

1. Вы больше как завтрак или как ужин?
2. Вы больше как дерево или как цветок?
3. Вы больше как зима или как лето?
4. Вы больше как учитель или как ученик?

5. Вы больше как "да" или как "нет"?
6. Вы больше как деревня или как город?
7. Вы больше как настоящее или как будущее?
8. Вы больше как ребенок или как старик?
9. Вы больше как маргаритка или как роза?
10. Вы больше как шуба или как плащ?

ПРЕДПОЧТЕНИЕ

This strategy can help students in the decision-making process by choosing among alternatives, stating them publicly, and (if possible) explaining or defending their choices. It gives the student practice in looking deeper into himself and making value judgments based on this introspection.

After prior explanation, the group leader reads the question or statement and gives the alternative choices for responding. Going around the circle, each student ranks the order of these choices according to preferences based on their values. This can also be done by providing the student with a list of the statements along with the choices, to which he would respond orally. After stating his rank order, he can be asked to explain or defend his choices. You can, of course, add additional choices, or substitute ones you feel more appropriate for your group.

1. Когда вы более счастливы?

а/ _____ осенью
_____ весной
_____ зимой
_____ летом

б/ _____ когда холодно
_____ когда тепло
_____ когда прохладно
_____ когда жарко

в/ _____ утром
_____ днем
_____ вечером
_____ ночью

г/ _____ когда говорю с друзьями
_____ когда гуляю один
_____ когда читаю

2. Где вы более счастливы?

_____ в школе
_____ дома
_____ в магазине
_____ на дворе

3. Когда вы чувствуете себя усталым?

_____ в семь часов утра
_____ в три часа дня
_____ в десять часов вечера

4. Когда вы очень голодны?

_____ в двенадцать часов дня
_____ в четыре часа дня
_____ в десять часов вечера

5. Когда вы себя чувствуете более спокойным?

_____ утром
_____ днем
_____ вечером
_____ ночью

6. Какое у вас настроение, когда вы одни вечером?

_____ мне скучно
_____ мне грустно
_____ я счастлив
_____ я боюсь
_____ я спокоен
_____ я себя чувствую одиноким

7. Где бы вы хотели жить?

а/ _____ в новой квартире
_____ в большом помещичьем доме
_____ в своем собственном доме

б/ _____ в деревне
_____ в маленьком городке
_____ в большом городе

8. Что вы предпочитаете делать во время каникул?

_____ ходить на пляж
_____ ходить в горы
_____ отдыхать
_____ путешествовать

9. Где вы предпочитаете быть по субботам?

_____ в лесу
_____ дома
_____ в библиотеке
_____ на дворе
_____ в магазине

10. Что вы любите делать по воскресеньям?

_____ отдыхать
_____ гулять с друзьями
_____ смотреть телевизор
_____ готовить домашние задания

11. Какое время года вам больше всего нравится?
_____ лето
_____ весна
_____ зима
_____ осень

12. Что вы больше всего любите?
_____ зиму в горах
_____ осень в деревне
_____ лето на берегу моря

13. Как вы развлекаетесь?
_____ хожу на концерты
_____ хожу в кино
_____ говорю с приятелями
_____ смотрю телевизор

14. Что вы меньше всего хотите делать?
_____ ложиться спать
_____ делать домашние задания
_____ убирать комнату
_____ вставать утром

15. Что вам труднее всего делать?
а/ _____ есть что-то невкусное
_____ писать доклад
_____ варить
б/ _____ молчать
_____ выступать перед людьми
_____ говорить с учителем

16. Что, по-вашему, самое главное?
_____ любовь
_____ здоровье
_____ деньги
_____ уважение других

17. Что, по-вашему, самое главное у других?
_____ красота
_____ приятный характер
_____ ум
_____ великодушие

18. Что самое главное в дружбе?
_____ верность
_____ великодушие
_____ искренность
_____ честность

19. Что вы помните о приятеле?
_____ как он выглядел
_____ то, что он сказал
_____ то, что он делал для меня

20. Что вы помните о человеке, с которым вы только что познакомились?
_____ то, что он сказал
_____ как он выглядел
_____ как он поздоровался

21. Как вы лучше всего учитесь чему-либо?
_____ на лекциях
_____ на семинарах
_____ по индивидуальному обучению

22. Как вы лучше всего веселитесь?
_____ один
_____ с большой группой людей
_____ с несколькими друзьями

23. Какие люди вам меньше всего нравятся?
_____ те, которые всегда спорят
_____ те, которые всегда и на все жалуются
_____ те, которые бесконечно шутят
_____ те, которые говорят только о себе.

24. Кем бы вы меньше всего предпочитали быть?
а/ _____ очень бедным б/ _____ глухим
_____ очень больным _____ слепым
_____ непопулярным _____ ампутированным

25. Кем бы вы больше всего предпочитали быть?
а/ _____ единственным ребенком б/ _____ богатым
_____ самым младшим _____ известным
_____ самым старшим _____ счастливым

26. Какой человек самый счастливый?
_____ очень приятный
_____ умный
_____ самый сильный
_____ очень популярный
_____ богатый

27. Что, по-вашему, наиболее вредно?
_____ сигареты
_____ марихуана
_____ спиртные напитки

28. Какой подарок вы больше всего хотели бы получить?
_____ неожиданный, сюрприз
_____ подарок, о котором я уже знаю
_____ подарок, который я сам выбрал
_____ деньги, с которыми я сам мог бы его купить

29. Какую жизнь вы предпочитаете?
_____ веселую, но короткую
_____ нормальную до среднего возраста
_____ долгую, но трудную

30. Чем ваши родители никогда не довольны?
_____ моей одеждой
_____ моей работой в школе
_____ моими друзьями
_____ моими волосами

31. Что предпочитают ваши родители?
_____ чтобы я поступил в университет
_____ чтобы я хорошо зарабатывал
_____ чтобы я хорошо женился
[Вы согласны с этим?]

32. Что вы чаще всего просите у родителей?
_____ пойти куда-нибудь развлекаться с приятелями
_____ получить машину
_____ получить деньги

33. Чтобы быть хорошим отцом, отец должен
_____ хорошо зарабатывать
_____ часто разговаривать со мной о моих идеях, мнениях и действиях
_____ часто проводить время со мной

34. Чтобы быть хорошей матерью, мать должна
_____ давать своим детям хорошие советы
_____ быть "приятелем" своим детям
_____ не вмешиваться в дела своих детей

35. Если бы вы получили 500 долларов, что бы вы сделали?
_____ отдал бы бедным
_____ купил бы что-нибудь
_____ положил бы в банк

36. Как бы вы использовали наследство?
_____ на путешествия
_____ на образование
_____ на развлечения

37. Если бы вы вдруг стали миллионером, что вы делали бы?
_____ делился бы своим богатством
_____ продолжал бы свою нормальную работу и образ жизни
_____ действительно жил бы на широкую ногу

38. Какого учителя вы предпочитаете?
_____ противного характера, но хорошего учителя
_____ приятного человека, но плохого учителя
_____ с характером и способностями среднего уровня

39. Что вы хотите больше всего улучшить (в себе)?

_____ свою наружность
_____ как я провожу время
_____ как я сообщаюсь с людьми

40. Ваш друг написал книгу, которая вам совсем не понравилась. Если он спросит ваше мнение, что вы скажете?

_____ свое искренное мнение
_____ сколько, по-моему, он может выдержать
_____ то, что он хочет слышать

Вы ЧЕЛОВЕК, КОТОРЫЙ ...?

This exercise encourages students to think about their present values, beliefs, and habits, as well as their goals for the future.

Going around the circle, students are to answer yes, no, or maybe (with the complete sentence) to each of the questions. At a more advanced level, they can be asked for more details or an explanation. Many of these questions can be followed by an inquiry as to how that particular behavior (goal, hope, etc.) makes the student feel.

Считаете ли вы себя человеком,(который)...

1. никогда не начнет курить?
2. будет первым из всех в классе, который поедет в Европу?
3. никогда не захочет поехать в Европу?
4. будет жениться/выйдет замуж из-за денег?
5. никогда не захочет много денег?
6. у которого никогда не будет столько денег, сколько хочет?
7. очень материалистически настроен?
8. почти никогда сонливый?
9. часто просыпается из-за кошмарных сновидений?
10. будет политическим деятелем?
11. наверно потолстеет?
12. будет как можно чаще ходить в рестораны?
13. никогда не будет нанимать уборщицу?

14. будет иметь возможность получить Нобелевскую премию?
15. определенно покинет свой родной город?
16. включает радио, как только войдет в свою комнату?
17. не может выключить телевизор в середине фильма поздно вечером?
18. никогда не пропускает вечерних новостей?
19. будет хорошим отцом/хорошей матерью?
20. будет ездить машиной слишком быстро?

ПРОДОЛЖАЙТЕ!

This task can help the student think about his attitudes, beliefs, habits, actions, interests, goals, likes, and dislikes.

The teacher reads the first part of the sentence, and each student in the circle completes it orally. Another method is to hand out a short list of incomplete sentences (perhaps chosen by topic, or a few sentences chosen at random, not exceeding five or six sentences) and ask each student to choose one sentence to complete orally and share with the group. An alternative method is to ask each student to complete all the sentences on the list and share them with one or two others, then share one sentence with the entire group. After all have responded, each student's response should be recalled by other members of the group.

1. У меня нет .....
2. У моих родителей нет .....
3. В школе нет .....
4. В городе { я чувствую себя ..... / мне .....
5. В деревне { я чувствую себя ..... / мне .....
6. Я счастлив, когда .....
7. Мне жаль .....

8. Мне надо .....
9. Я боюсь .....
10. Я интересуюсь .....
11. По субботам я люблю .....
12. На каникулах я люблю .....
13. Когда я один, я люблю .....
14. Когда я с друзьями, я люблю .....
15. Когда я учусь, я .....
16. Когда я хожу в школу, я .....
17. Если бы у меня было больше времени, я .....
18. Если бы у меня было больше денег, я .....
19. Мне нравятся люди, которые .....
20. Самый важный член моей семьи .....
21. Я плачу когда .....
22. Я сержусь когда .....
23. Мне никогда не нравится .....
24. Когда я встречаю приятеля, я .....
25. Я больше ем, когда .....
26. Я буду счастлив, когда .....
27. Мне будет грустно, когда .....
28. Чтобы быть хорошим отцом, мой отец должен .....
29. Чтобы быть хорошей матерью, моя мать должна .....
30. Если бы я был моим отцом, я .....
    " " " " моей матерью, я .....
    " " " " директором школы, я .....
    " " " " преподавателем этого курса, я .....
    " " " " президентом этой страны, я .....
31. Когда я буду работать, я хотел бы .....
32. Если я стану богатым, я .....
33. Я хотел бы сказать близкому другу .....
34. Многие не согласны со мной в том, что .....
35. Самый счастливый день моей жизни был .....
36. Когда я дома один, я .....
37. Люди меня обижают, когда .....
38. Мне очень нравится учитель, который .....

39. Те, которые меня хорошо знают, думают что .....
40. Те, которые работают со мной, думают что .....
41. Если бы я мог что-то в жизни повторить, я .....
42. Люди меня оскорбляют, когда .....
43. Когда люди знакомятся со мной, они .....
44. Когда кто-нибудь все время говорит, я .....
45. В группе людей я больше всего боюсь .....
46. Среди людей я себя чувствую одиноким, когда .....
47. Если бы у меня осталось еще только 24 часа жизни, ...
48. Я чувствую себя лучше всего, когда люди .....
49. Если бы у меня был миллион долларов, ...
50. Люди, которые соглашаются со мной, ...
51. Если люди расчитывают на меня, ...
52. То, что меня больше всего забавляет, ...
53. Человек, который меня увлекает .....
54. В школе я лучше всего успеваю, когда .....
55. Когда кто-нибудь меня обижает, я .....
56. Я должен совершенствоваться больше всего в .....
57. Я больше всего беспокоюсь о .....
58. Я доверяю тем, которые .....
59. Мне кажется, что меня любят больше всего .....
60. Я горжусь тем, что .....
61. То, что меня радует .....
62. Тем, что я любуюсь .....
63. То, что меня удивляет .....
64. Когда наша семья собирается .....
65. Моим детям не надо будет .....

ИНТЕРВЬЮ

This exercise is simply one of asking for responses to questions or situations which elicit personal experiences as well as the thoughts and feelings evoked by them. It provides a simple and rapid way

for students to react to various situations and issues, helping to guide them to thoughtfully consider the thoughts, feelings, and beliefs that are involved in their behavior and opinions.

The questions are asked of all the members of the circle, each in turn responds (or passes) after a few moments of thought. The answers should be brief and to the point, although if he wants, the student may give more background information. The teacher may ask all or several students the same question, or ask a different question of each student. To ensure quick, honest and linguistically correct responses, all of the preceding exercises (based on a particular topic) should be used. Sample follow-up questions are given, but the best ones are those that come to mind as the teacher (or other students) listen and react to each others' responses. Student responses should be recalled by other members of the group.

1. В какой день недели вам легче работать?
2. В какой день недели вы устаете больше всего?
3. В какой день недели вы больше всего счастливы?
4. Где вы (не) счастливы?
5. Что вы не любите делать в школе?
6. Осмотрите эту комнату. Что вам здесь (не) нравится? [например: часы]
   Почему?
7. Назовите что-нибудь в вашей спальне, (в вашем доме) что вам (не) нравится. Какие чувства это у вас вызывает?
8. Что вы хотели бы больше всего иметь? Почему?
9. Что вы хорошо (плохо) делаете? Как вы себя чувствуете, когда вы это делаете?
10. Когда вы много смеетесь?
    Когда вы много плачете?
11. Что вы делаете, когда кто-нибудь зайдет к вам? Какие чувства это у вас вызывает?

12. Какие у вас хорошие привычки? Как вы себя чувствуете, когда вы это делаете?

    Какие у вас плохие привычки? Как вы себя чувствуете, когда вы это делаете? Хотите ли вы это изменить? Когда? Почему?

13. Что вы хотели бы делать во время будущих каникул? Что вы в самом деле будете делать? Кто это решил? Какие чувства это у вас вызывает? **[Have students notice the contrast between what they want to do as opposed to what they're going to do?]**

14. Вы когда-нибудь приготовили чрезвычайно вкусный обед? Что вы приготовили? Кто-нибудь вас за это поздравил? Какие чувства это у вас вызвало?

15. Чем вы больше всего гордитесь? Что вы сделали на прошлой неделе, (в прошлом году) чем вы гордитесь?

16. Что вам нравится больше всего из того, что люди вам (о вас) говорят? Почему?

17. Скажите кому-нибудь в классе каким одним его качеством (или больше) вы любуетесь. **(After he does this ask both students involved):** Какие чувства это вызвало у вас?

18. Назовите что-нибудь о чем вы недавно изменили свое мнение.

    Назовите что-нибудь о чем вы еще не имеете определенного мнения.

19. Назовите одно качество, которое вы хотели бы видеть у своего друга. Почему? Может ли он это у вас видеть?

20. Где бы вы хотели быть двадцать лет спустя? Почему?

21. Чему бы вы особенно хотели научиться, или что бы вы особенно хотели узнать перед смертью. По-вашему, это будет вам возможно? Почему (нет)?

    Что бы вы особенно хотели сделать перед смертью? Это вам будет возможно? Почему (нет)?

VARIATIONS

Most of the statements and questions given, as well as other more topical ones, lend themselves to the following variations:

1. Voting

   Voting provides a very simple way for the student to state his position on a variety of issues. It helps make him realize that others often see these issues quite differently, and hence can make him more amenable to differences in modes of thinking.

   The teacher reads questions aloud, one by one, each beginning with the phrase: "Сколько из вас...". To each question the students respond by various means: affirmatives raise their hands, negatives point their thumbs down, undecided fold their arms, and those wishing to pass do nothing. Discussion can follow.

2. Degree of Agreement/Disagreement

   This exercise encourages the student to think about the strength of his opinions. Like the values continuum it can show the range of existing alternatives on any issue.

   Students indicate whether they strongly agree, agree somewhat, strongly disagree, or disagree somewhat with statements that are read or listed on a worksheet. The teacher can ask them to defend or explain their responses, thus enabling a discussion to ensue.

3. Listening to Others

   In order to really communicate, and really be open to alternative ways of thinking, one must really listen to others. All too often, in a foreign language class, students are so busy preparing for what they will say, that they miss the full meaning of what is being said at the moment.

This exercise should help to facilitate real communication, and help the student understand how difficult it is to actively listen to someone else, especially when he disagrees with him.

Before offering his own opinion, the student must summarize what the person befire him has said. In this way the previous speaker can feel that what he said has been understood. This is a variation of recalling (after the activity is finished) others' statements.

4. Learning

This strategy can help clarify and reinforce the previous activity, and provides a good summary for most values-clarification strategies.

A chart containing the following phrases is posted on the board, or handed out:

I learned that... I realized that...

I noticed that... I was surprised that...

I was pleased that... I was displeased that...

Immediately following a values clarification strategy, students are asked to think for a moment about what they have just learned about themselves and their value systems. They can then complete (silently) any of the sentence stems and share them with the group. Sentences should be short and to the point, with no defense or explanation called for. Students should not be called on, but asked to volunteer whenever they feel comfortable enough with the activity or the group. This strategy should be used only after an atmosphere of mutual respect and trust has been firmly established.

5. Sharing

This strategy should serve to heighten the level of trust among students in the group. It is a good way for members to become better acquainted,

so as to maximize the level of mutual respect for further values strategies. It is also a good way of forming new groups.

For any of the given activities, especially the interview or ensuing discussions, students should be asked to find one or two people with whom they do not ordinarily converse, or whom they do not know very well. They then could spend an allotted amount of time (about five minutes) sharing their feelings and opinions. Alternatively, the teacher can give certain topics which refer to personal situations (e.g., their most embarassing moment, a low point during the past week, etc.), which the students would share with these relative strangers. Current issues could also be given as topics for discussion in these small groups.

MISCELLANEOUS, ONE-TIME ONLY STRATEGIES

In their wonderful book, Values Clarification: A Handbook of Practical Strategies, Simon, Hava and Kirschenbaum offer many other ingenious strategies. Below are several which I found especially effective in a foreign language class.

Family Picture

Students are asked to bring in pictures of their families, and the teacher does likewise. The teacher first describes his own family--their ages, interests, occupations, etc. He then asks for a volunteer who will do the same by responding to leading questions. Afterwards each student can be asked to describe his family in a similar way. This exercise is particularly helpful in the very beginning of language study. At that point, however, a vocabulary list would be indispensable.

Childhood Pictures

Students are asked to bring in two or three pictures of when they were younger, before they started school, and during or after the primary grades. In small groups or in front of the class they could be asked questions about their childhood, such as:

How old were you in each photo?
At what age were you happiest?
Were you often unhappy as a child?
How old were you when you were the unhappiest?
What did you like to do with your family? Do you still do this or like to do this? If not, would you like to do it again?
Did you want anything then that you still want now?
What did you do to get something you wanted then?
Do you or can you still do this?

The best questions are the ones that occur spontaneously.

After the activity has been completed, ask if anyone has learned anything new about the time when they were young.

Vacation Picture

The same techniques as above can be used with vacation pictures. For both of these activities, the students can be the ones posing the questions, but the person responding has the right to pass or ask them the same question.

Collage

Have students cut out pictures from magazines (old Russian ones, perhaps) to make a collage. It should depict who they are and what they like to do. Ask them to show it and then describe it to the class. The teacher may want to hang them on the wall.

What's in Your Wallet?

Ask the students to take out three things (one or two would suffice) from their wallets that show three different things they value. The items can be anything at all, just the fact that they carry them indicates something. Then go around the circle, giving each student an opportunity to say something about himself and his value system as seen from these items.

Magic Box

Tell students about an imaginary magic box in which they can put whatever they want. Ask them to talk about their magic boxes, using questions such as the following:

What would you put in it?

What would you put in it for your mother?

What would you put in it for your best friend?

What is the smallest thing you would put in it?

What is the largest?

After they have talked about their magic boxes, students could be asked to rank order the things they want most

for themselves. A follow-up question would be: Have you done anything to attain these things?

Gift

This is a similar strategy. Tell students: "Imagine there is a box here. In the box is a present for you. What is it? Who gave it to you? How does it make you feel?

After the activity is completed, students can be asked to recall each others' gifts.

Telephone Call

Tell students to imagine a phone call which gave them some interesting news. Who called? What did they tell you? Were you happy about it or not? What were your feelings when you heard the news?

Again the students could be asked to recall the responses.

Objects Symbolizing Success

Ask students to bring to class objects symbolizing different types of success. Have them show them to the class and explain them. Discussion could follow.

Dream Description

Ask students to describe a dream they had recently. Or ask them to prepare for this exercise by placing a piece of paper and pencil next to their beds, so they can jot down notes about it as soon as possible after the dream. Then ask them to describe their dreams, using the following questions as an aid:

What did you see, hear, feel, touch -- objects, colors, persons?

Who was with you? What did they say or do?

How did you feel in the dream?

How do you feel about it now?

Three Characters

The students are asked to write down on a piece of paper the name of three persons chosen from real life, fiction, movies, history, cartoons, the news, etc., who correspond to the following questions:

If you could be anyone else you wanted, what is the name of the character you would most like to be?

The name of the character who you would least like to be?

The name of a character who is most like you?

After completing their lists, students break up into small groups and discuss their lists, explaining their choices. After the discussion the teacher could ask questions such as:

Were your characters males or females?

Would your list have been different three years ago?

Is there anyone in whose list you would be included?

Would your best friend (parents) be able to guess the names on your list?

This strategy should be used only after sufficient trust and respect have been established within the group.

Epitaph

This exercise can help the student examine his life in terms of death. The right to pass is obligatory in this exercise, since the thought of death can be frightening to some students.

Ask the students to tell what they would want written on their tombstones (or in their obituary). What would be a good description of their life in a few words?

Cave-In Problem

This strategy encourages students to think about

what they want out of life, and what they can contribute to this world.

Tell the students to imagine that the entire group has been trapped very far below ground by a cave-in. (The atmosphere can be simulated by turning off lights, and sitting huddled together in a corner.) In order to get out they decide to form a single line and try to work their way out. But at any moment there might be another rock slide. The students nearest to the front of the line will have the best chances for survival. Each member of the class is to give his reasons for why he should be at the head of the line. Reasons can be of two types: in terms of the future, what you still need to get out of life, or in terms of what you have to contribute to others. Both types of reasons are to be considered equally. After each member offers his reasons, the class determines the order of the line. A student may pass, but that means he is deciding to allow himself to be placed at the end of the line.

Who Are You

This activity can serve to make students aware of how and in what terms they define themselves and what they do. It also encourages students to look at different ways of judging themselves.

The teacher calls for three volunteers and asks each to leave the room. Calling in only the first person, the teacher (or another student) asks him "Who are you?" After the student has responded the teacher asks the same question again until he has asked him ten times (fewer if necessary). The teacher then calls the second student and repeats the exercise. By asking for volunteers, and leaving them unaware of the others' responses, very often tremendous variations can be seen in how students interpret the question, or in what terms they define themselves. After the three volunteers have responded,

others can list their answers, in ten words, and share them with the group. The teacher should participate in this, perhaps after the volunteers have finished.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

One final word of caution is necessary. The strategies described above frequently call for highly personal information about the students, their hopes and plans, and their likes and dislikes about themselves and those around them. Some may be quite reluctant to express these feelings, especially at first, and their right to this must be respected. In time they will probably get over this reluctance and will join in the fun. Used skillfully and with good common sense, the strategies will not only facilitate communication, but will help everyone in the class to get to know each other (and themselves) better, and to enjoy each other and their class time much more.

FOOTNOTES

[1]For statistics on foreign language requirements and enrollments, see Richard I. Brod's several reports in ADFL, 3(September, 1971), 5(September, 1973), and 7(September, 1975).

[2]This paper and the strategies and examples that follow are found in Sidney B. Simon, Leland W. Howe, and Howard Kirschenbaum, Values Clarification: A Handbook of Practical Strategies for Teachers and Students (New York: Hart Publishing Co., 1972). This volume is an invaluable source for values clarification strategies (listing 79, with innumerable examples) that can be easily transferred to the Russian classroom. Other techniques have been adapted from Phyllis Hersh Stoller, Joanne Tuskes Lock, Virginia Wilson, and

Beverly Wattenmaker, Real Communication in French (Upper Jay, N.Y.: Adirondack Mountain Humanistic Education Center, 1974). A program for teaching French, this book is "based on a concept of sequential human development experience coordinated with sequential grammatical structures created by the authors." Other materials using this approach for teaching foreign languages are: Wilson and Wattenmaker, Real Communication in Foreign Language (Upper Jay, N.Y.: AMHEC) and Wilson and Wattenmaker, Real Communication in Spanish (Upper Jay, N.Y.: AMHEC), and are available from Adirondack Mountain Humanistic Education Center, Upper Jay, New York 12987. For more strategies and background on the use of values clarification in teaching foreign languages, see also David E. Wolfe and Leland Howe, "Personalizing Foreign Language Instruction," in Foreign Language Annals, 7 (October 1973):81-90; and Douglas Morgenstein, "Academic Report: Eight Activities for the Conversation Class," in The Modern Language Journal, 60 (January-February 1976):35-38.

[3]A similar conclusion, based on a survey of Russian language students, is reported by Irene Thompson in her article in this volume.

[4]While the information in this paragraph comes from notes taken during Professor Rivers' lectures at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, similar views can be found in her published works, e.g. Teaching Foreign-Language Skills (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1968), and A Practical Guide to Teaching French (New York: Oxford University Press, 1975).

COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE: ACHIEVEMENTS, ATTITUDES, TECHNIQUES FOR TESTING

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Introduction

The past decade has witnessed a growth of interest in the development of communicative skills in the foreign language classroom. Jakobovits[1] and Savignon[2] among others have addressed themselves to the role of communicative competence as compared to linguistic competence. Bonin and Birckbichler,[3] Carton-Caprio,[4] Morgenstern,[5] Powell,[6] and Savignon[7] have suggested techniques for developing communicative skills. Together with an interest in developing communicative proficiency in our students, there has been an increasing concern with student-related variables, such as attitudes, motivation, aptitude, perseverence, etc., and a questioning of the interpersonal relationships which exist in the foreign language classroom (e.g., Stevick[8] and Jakobovits and Gordon[9]).

This recent interest in real-life language use was prompted by several observations: 1) foreign language students who perform well within the foreign language classroom and on discrete-point tests are often quite incompetent when required to use their linguistic knowledge in a real-life language situation; 2) foreign language students see the acquisition of communicative competence as desirable; 3) it is possible to develop and test spontaneous use of language in the service of real-life communication in the artificial environment of a formal language program.

Trends in foreign language teaching have always set the tone for foreign language testing. When mastery of a foreign language was considered to be the sum of

specific bits of linguistic information, or specific habits, discrete-point tests were reigning supreme. Examples of such reliable and criterion-valid discrete-point tests are the MLA-Cooperative Foreign Language Tests and the MLA-Cooperative Foreign Language Proficiency Tests developed at ETS.

As language teaching became more oriented towards developing communicative skills in foreign language learners, a need for the development of psychometric instruments for the measurement of communicative proficiency became more obvious. Although several such tests have been in existence for a relatively long period of time, development of reliable and valid instruments has been slow and beset by both theoretical and practical problems. Among existing oral proficiency tests which simulate real-life language use, one must mention the FSI face-to-face interview,[10] the picture test,[11] and the Peace Corps "communication task" technique.

Theoretical Considerations. If communicative competence is to be defined as the ability on the part of the speaker to put linguistic and other expressive means to the task of getting ideas and messages across, we are faced with having to develop criteria as to what are the units in which communicative ability is to be measured. Psychometricians such as Helmstadter[12] warn test constructors that if scales are used in measuring behavior, interobserver agreement, and therefore, scale reliability, is higher for those characteristics which are directly observable than for those which are derived indirectly by evaluation or by interpretation of different behaviors. Reliability is also greater for characteristics which are specific entities than for those which are composites. Thus, communicative competence can be tested more reliably if we can break it down into behaviors which are directly observable to the judges. This problem has yet to be resolved.

Another theoretical problem is that of face validity. Clark feels that the FSI Oral Interview is as close to real life communication as possible in a test situation.[13] Lado disagrees.[14] One must accept, indeed, that there are some limitations on the face validity of the interview technique. The test surroundings do not resemble anything in real life, the examiners are unlikely stand-ins for waiters, tourists, shopkeepers, etc. There is tension on the part of all participants. There are style and register constraints appropriate to the testing situation, but hardly conducive to informal chats with the friendly waiter. If dealyed scoring is used, there is a tape-recorder or video-tape. Consider the presence of such recording equipment in a bare room with the examiner(s) calling the communicative plays. Many a feeble heart will tend to freeze.

Still another problem is that of sampling validity. If testing is infrequent, how can we be sure that we have adequately sampled the universe of communicative situations and tasks?

There also exist problems with scoring and evaluating. Will evaluation be simultaneous or will it be delayed? Both approaches have their advantages and disadvantages. Delayed scoring may be less reliable because some stimuli, such as gestures and facial expressions, will be lost in a tape-recording. Clarifications, additions and expansions cannot be made. There may be problems with recording equipment. On the other hand, the evaluator will not be swayed by the beautiful blue eyes of the examinee, and unclear portions can be played back. More judges can be used. The tape makes a permanent record of a student's progress.

Finally, reliability is affected by both length and number of tests. The longer the test, the more reliable it is. Repeated testing is not only more reliable, it provides the students with feedback and impetus.

Practical considerations. Communicative tests, such as a lengthy oral interview, can be expensive in terms of time, effort and space. Raters may be difficult to train. Individual interviews with students are difficult to arrange. Methods for scoring one communicative task appear not to be applicable for scoring another one.

The purpose of this paper is to present the results of a two-fold study concerned with the development of psychometric instruments for the measurement of communicative skills in Russian. The first part of the study is a student survey. The second part is a quasi-experimental treatment of a test of communicative competence.

PART I: STUDENT SURVEY

Subjects. 79 students (90% of the language enrollment in the Slavic Department of George Washington University) returned the questionnaire. The students had a mean age of 21 years, had an average of 2.74 years of college with an average of 9.29 semester hours of Russian, and a median of 6 semester hours. They were distributed in ever diminishing numbers across four levels (40, 21, 13, 5). The general GPA did not differ from the Russian GPA for males (3.31 vs. 3.22). For females the Russian GPA was significantly higher than the general GPA (3.56 vs. 3.38).

Procedure. Students were asked to fill out a questionnaire. The questionnaire contained questions about personal data, opinion and attitudes. Only those portions of the questionnaire pertinent to this study will be reported on.

Results. Table 1 shows the languages, other than Russian, studied by the students. The three most popular languages were, predictably, French, Spanish and German. The students were asked to rate the skills they had achieved in these languages on a scale from (1) -

lowest to (5) - highest. The results are presented in Table 3 and Figure 1. It is obvious that communication skills were rated the lowest of the four skills. Next, the students were asked to rate the skills they had achieved in Russian. The results are presented in Table 4 and Figure 2. Communication skills received the lowest rating. Figures 3, 4, 5, 6 present a comparison of the reading, writing, comprehension and communication skills achieved in other foreign languages and in Russian. In all four, students rank themselves lower in Russian, especially in the skill of communicating.

Table 5 shows the attitudes of the students towards the development of communicative skills. There was a highly positive response to the three questions. It must be noted here that only 8.86% of the sample were Russian majors. Thus, there appears to be a desire on the part of most students to learn to communicate in Russian. This is somewhat at variance with the actual achievement levels as seen by the students themselves.

The students were then asked to rate four reasons for their limitations in communicating. Table 6 and Figure 7 present the results. It is clear that the two most important reasons, in their opinion, are limited vocabulary and lack of experience in communicating. Figure 7 shows that the ratings for the two reasons are almost identical. In contrast, both pronunciation and grammar were judged to be of considerably lesser importance.

Next the students were asked to make a forced choice of three activities from an extended list of popular classroom activities which, in their opinion, would be most helpful in developing skills in communication. Results appear in Table 7. The choices show that the students have a good understanding of which activities are most conducive to the development of oral proficiency. One must also note the low rating assigned to the recitation of dialogues.

With regard to testing, the students were first asked to rate factors which, in their judgement, were reflected least to most in their grades. Results are presented in Table 8. It is clear that students feel grammar to be the most important factor reflected in their grades. Ability to communicate, as part of the grade, is given the lowest rating. In other words, students feel that they are not being graded for their ability to communicate, but mostly for the accuracy of their grammar. At the same time, it must be noted that students felt that grammar was relatively unimportant as a reason for communicative deficits on their part. The opposite was true of vocabulary (see Figs. 8 and 9).

Secondly, the students were asked to choose three types of activities and situations from an extended list of popular activities which, in their opinion, would best test their communicative skills. The results appear in Table 9. One must note again that students are quite astute in their choices. Also note the low rating given to dialogues as a testing device.

Finally, attitudes towards error correction, which appear in Table 10, show a very conservative student body which would rather have all their mistakes corrected at the end of their oral presentation, and see error correction in a highly positive light.

Summary. The following short summary concludes the first part of this paper:

(1) Majority of students assigned very low ratings to their ability to communicate in Russian. These ratings were lower than those for other foreign languages.

(2) Majority of students welcomed an emphasis on communicating in the classroom.

(3) Majority of students saw their lack of communicative competence as being due to lack of experience in communicating and in their limited vocabulary. Grammar and pronunciation were not considered important.

PART II: EXPERIMENTAL TEST

Subjects. 10 students participated in this quasi-experimental study. These were third-year Russian students (7 males and 3 females) with an average age of 21.46 years, and an average of 15 semester hours of Russian. They had studied under different instructional methods and using different textbooks during their first two years of Russian. The 3rd-year Russian course in which they were enrolled stressed all four skills and was somewhat eclectic in methodological approach.

Procedure. To assure complete face validity, a test of communicative skills should ideally be performed in a real-life situation. Since this is not practical, the regular language classroom with the other students present can supply some naturalness and eliminate some of the tension present in an individualized testing situation. Since the students do not prepare for this type of test, there is no need for them to know that they are being tested. The presence of the tape-recorder, if delayed evaluation is to be used, can be explained in other ways. If the communicative task is short enough, an average class will have a chance to participate in one session. The procedure used in this study is similar to Savignon's Reporting[15]. A "visitor" is brought into the classroom. He is introduced as a recent arrival from the U.S.S.R. who, of course, speaks no English. He is interested in American customs, and would like to hear the students tell him about various aspects of a particular topic (holidays, traditions, political events, social customs, family relations, etc.). The subject matter to be discussed at this particular testing session is broken down into small manageable chunks. For the purposes of the present study the topic of holidays and festivities was chosen. After the "visitor" was introduced and pleasantries exchanged, 10 3 x 5 cards with names of holidays and festive occasions

were placed face down in random array on the table. Students took turns picking up a card, thinking for a minute or two and then making a 4-minute presentation which was recorded. They were not interrupted or corrected, but help was given by the instructor if requested. The "visitor" made encouraging remarks. A few minutes of general discussion followed each presentation for the purposes of making everybody more comfortable and to stress the participatory nature of the session.

Evaluation. Three native judges were used for delayed scoring. Several scoring methods were tried and abandoned. The final solution to measuring the amount of material communicated was to listen to all recordings and to make a list of recurring themes. For the subject of holidays we found recurring components which are noted on the evaluation sheet. Each student received a numerical grade in accordance with the number of themes touched upon in the report. In addition, each student was rated for his/her willingness to give information, intelligibility of the presentation, fluency of delivery. Finally, judgements on pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary were also made on a scale of 5.

Results. The results of the evaluation appear in Table 11. The entries in the columns represent an average of three ratings. There was very little disagreement among the judges on the ratings in any of the categories. Most disagreements were settled by discussion.

Table 12 shows the results of attempts to find correlations among the different measures given in Table 11. The amount of communication was significantly correlated with grammar and vocabulary, but not pronunciation. The correlation with vocabulary was greater. When all four measures of communication were added to give a composite measure (column 5) and the total communication measure was correlated to measures of linguistic performance, it was found that there was a significant positive correlation between judgements of communicative proficiency

and judgments of adequacy of vocabulary, but not of grammar and pronunciation. Evidently, the use of a greater number and the appropriateness of vocabulary items contributed to producing the impression of better communicative ability. It is interesting that the correlation between measure of communicative ability and grammaticality fell slightly short of significance. One must now recall the results of the earlier survey in which students indicated that lack of communicative proficiency was due more to limitations in vocabulary than to limitations in grammar. Clark observed that the distortion between linguistic and communicative measures is due, in part, to the ability of students to paraphrase, and in part to informational redundancy of natural languages.[16]

Next, a Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient between GPA in Russian and overall communicative skills as judged by this test fell short of significance. One must again recall the earlier survey in which students expressed the opinion that communicative competence had little to do with their grades. At the same time, the correlation between GPA in Russian and accuracy of grammar and adequacy of vocabulary fell in the range of significance. This confirms student opinion that they were judged primarily for their grammar, secondarily for their vocabulary.

Discussion. The results of this small quasi-experiment show that it is possible to develop a series of "mini-tests" appear to have sufficient face validity. Sampling validity can be assured by administering a sufficient number of such "mini-tests" so that the universe of situations to which communicative skills are to be applied will be adequately represented. Reliability of rating can be assured by giving raters some guidance and experience in evaluating such tests. It would also be interesting to find out if judges who

are not professional teachers of Russian are as stringent in their rating of grammaticality as Russian language specialists. In addition, accumulation of data from ratings of oral proficiency in different types of communicative situations will allow us to infer the relationship between communicative skills and other language skills. Carroll obtained coefficients of correlation between MLA tests and FSI ratings in the range of .58 to .86.[17] Garvey obtained similar results for French in a self-instructional program.[18]

No test is an end in itself. It must be correlated with some other criterion measure. In the case of oral proficiency tests, it is imperative that behavioral objectives be set for each level of Russian (one can adopt the FSI ratings for speaking proficiency or devise some other kind of ratings). The performance of students on tests of communicative competence can then be used to place them in proficiency categories which are not dependent on textbooks and instructional methods, nor defined by the course level. Adoption of some unified rating system for speaking proficiency would allow better placement and counseling, as well as easier transfer from one institution to another. If we were to adopt such a system, we could proceed with developing tests of communicative proficiency which would allow us to place students in absolutely defined proficiency categories.

Table 1: Languages Studied Besides Russian

Language	Number
French	37
Spanish	20
German	14
Latin	7
Hebrew	5
Greek	4
Italian	3
Polish	2
English	2 (foreign students)
Czech	1
Serbo-Croatian	1
Chinese	1
Korean	1
Sanskrit	1
None	16

Table 2: Distribution of Students Across Different Fields

Field	Number	Percent
International Affairs, History, Area Studies, Economics, Political Science	39	49.4
Languages (including Russian)	11	13.9
Uncommitted	15	18.9
Humanities (Music, English, Philosophy, Journalism, etc.)	5	6.4
Social Studies	3	3.8
Business Administration	3	3.8
Science and Technology	3	3.8
Russian	7	8.8

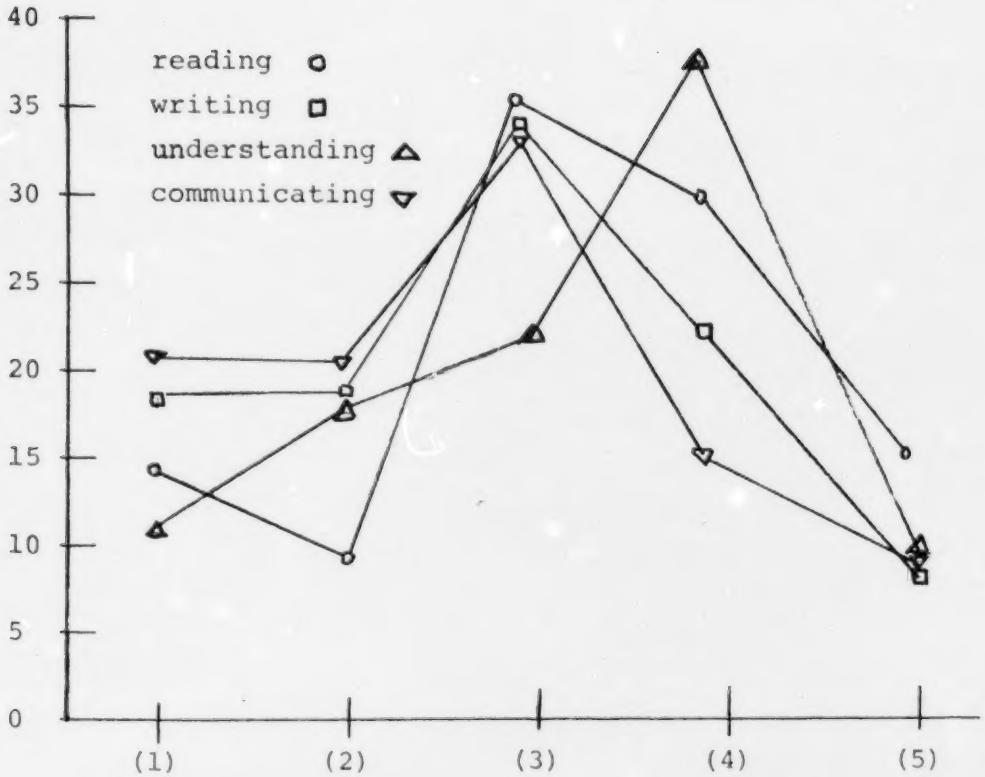


Figure 1: Ranking of skills achieved in other foreign languages on a scale of (1) - lowest to (5) - highest. Expressed in percentages.

Table 3: Skills achieved in other foreign languages ranked from (1) - lowest to (5) - highest. Expressed in percentages.

Skills	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Reading	14.28	8.57	34.28	28.57	14.28
Writing	18.57	18.57	32.85	21.42	8.57
Understanding	11.42	17.14	21.42	35.71	14.28
Communicating	21.42	21.42	32.85	14.28	10.00

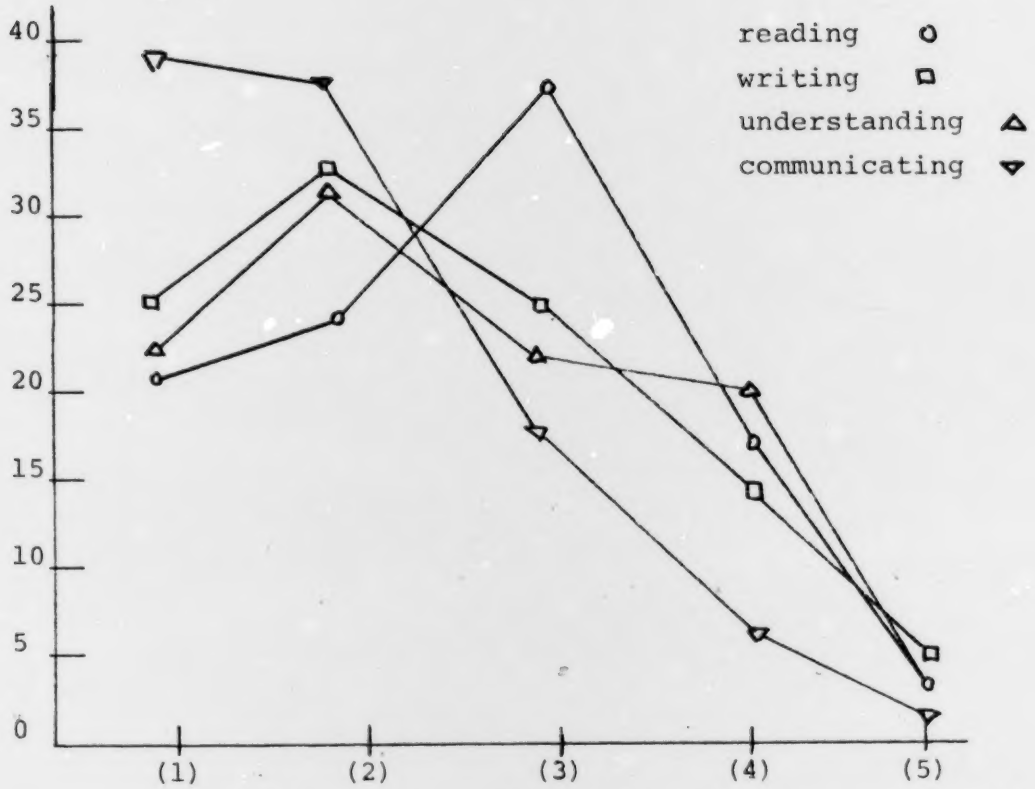


Figure 2: Ranking of skills achieved in Russian on a scale of (1) - lowest to (5) - highest. Expressed in percentages.

Table 4: Skills achieved in Russian ranked on a scale of (1) - lowest to (5) - highest. Expressed in percentages.

Skills	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Reading	21.51	24.05	36.70	15.19	2.53
Writing	25.31	32.91	25.31	12.66	3.79
Understanding	22.78	31.64	22.78	20.25	2.53
Communicating	37.97	36.71	17.72	6.33	1.26

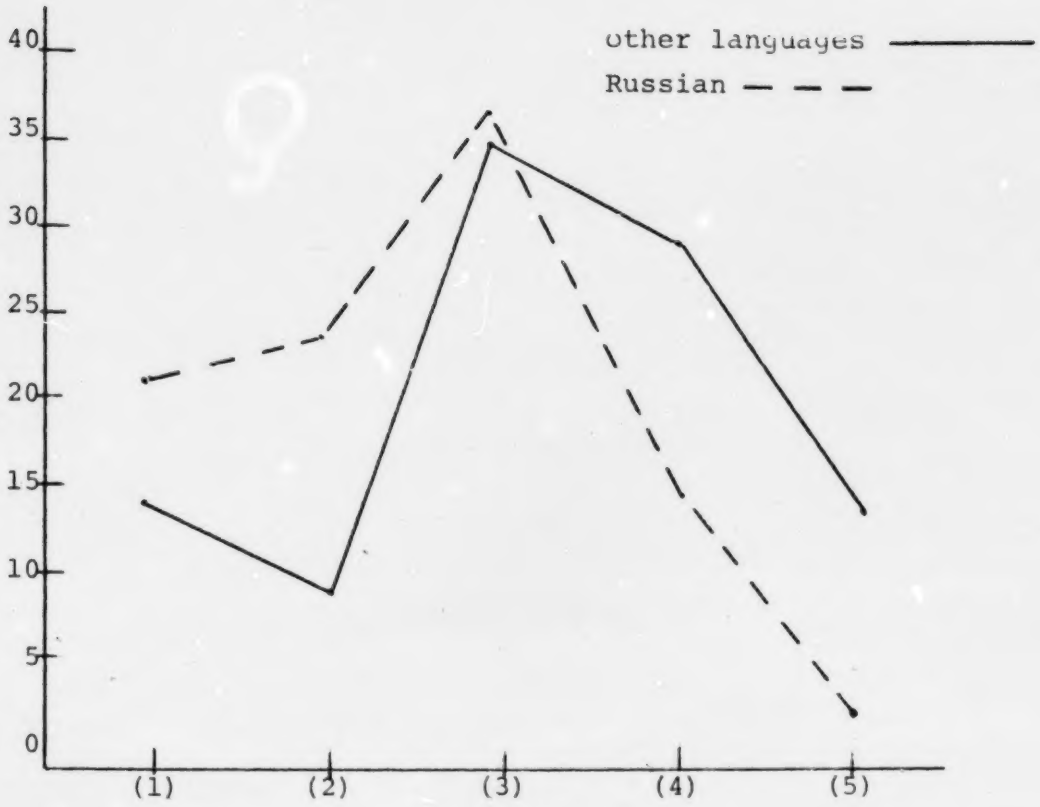


Figure 3: Ranking of reading skills achieved in other foreign languages as compared to Russian on a scale of (1) -

Table 5: Attitudes towards development of communicative skills in Russian.

Question	Agree	
	Number	Percent
I wish there were more emphasis on communicating and understanding in the classroom.	73	92.4
I wish I had a chance to make friends and converse with Russian-speaking people.	63	79.7
I would like to travel to the U.S.S.R. in the near future.	44	55.7

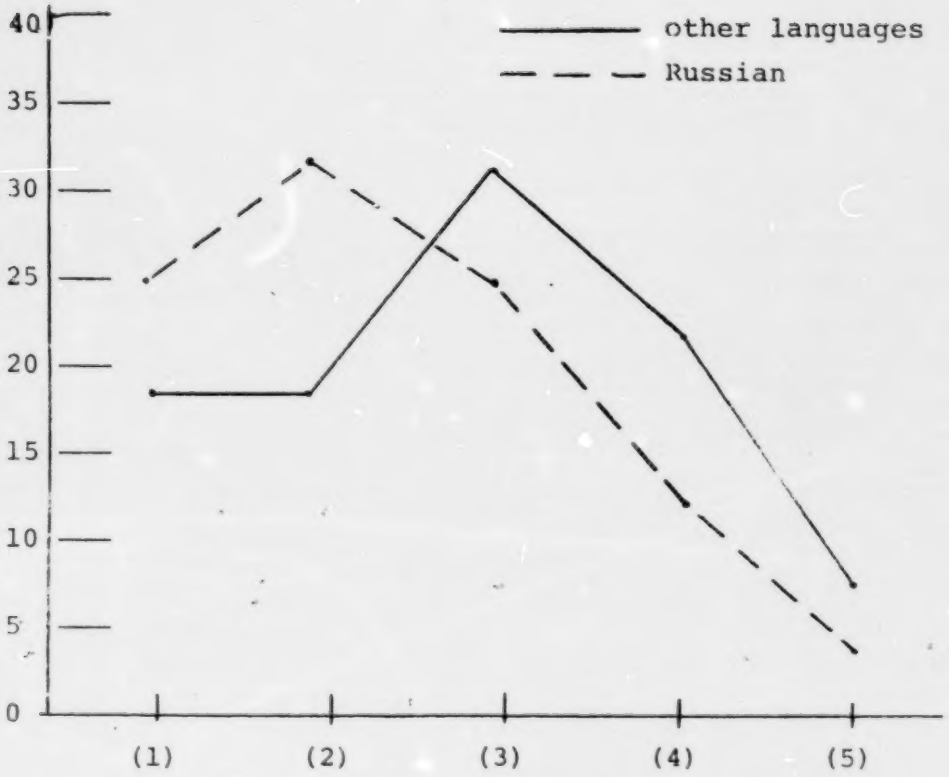


Figure 4: Ranking of writing skills achieved in other foreign languages as compared to Russian on a scale of (1) - lowest to (5) - highest.

Table 6: Reasons for lack of communicative skills in on a scale of (1) - least important to (5)- most important.

Reasons	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(4)
Poor pronunciation	355	14	13	8	4
Limited vocabulary	8	9	15	16	27
Limited grammar	14	19	16	17	4
Lack of experience in communicating	5	5	15	23	28

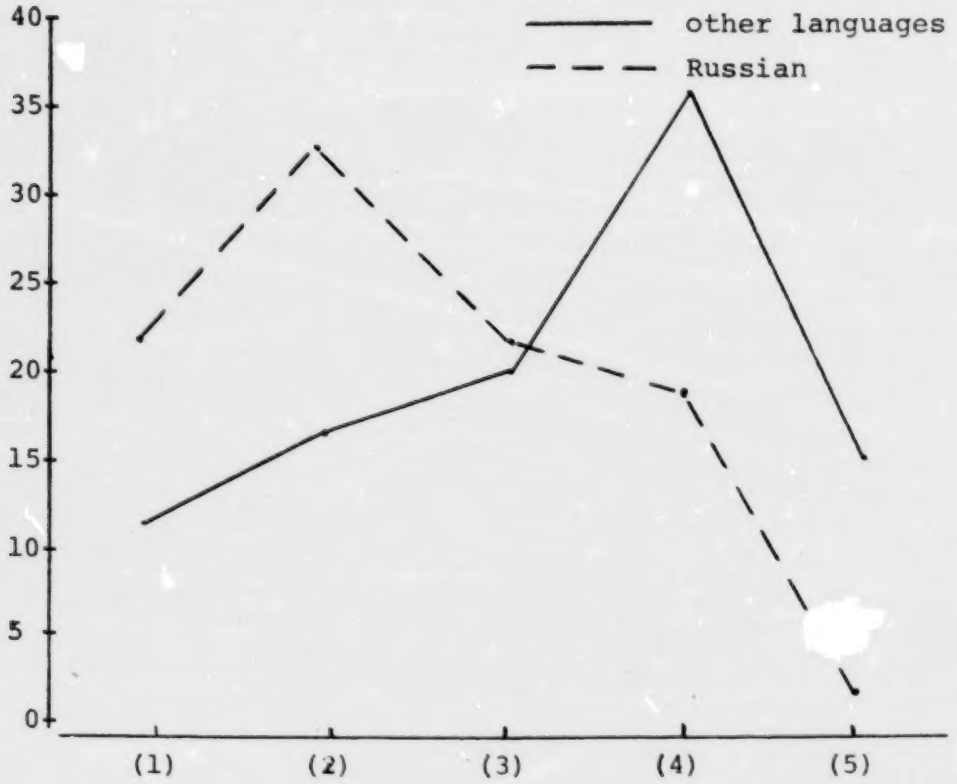


Figure 5: Ranking of comprehension skills achieved in other foreign languages as compared to Russian on a scale of (1) - lowest to (5) - highest.

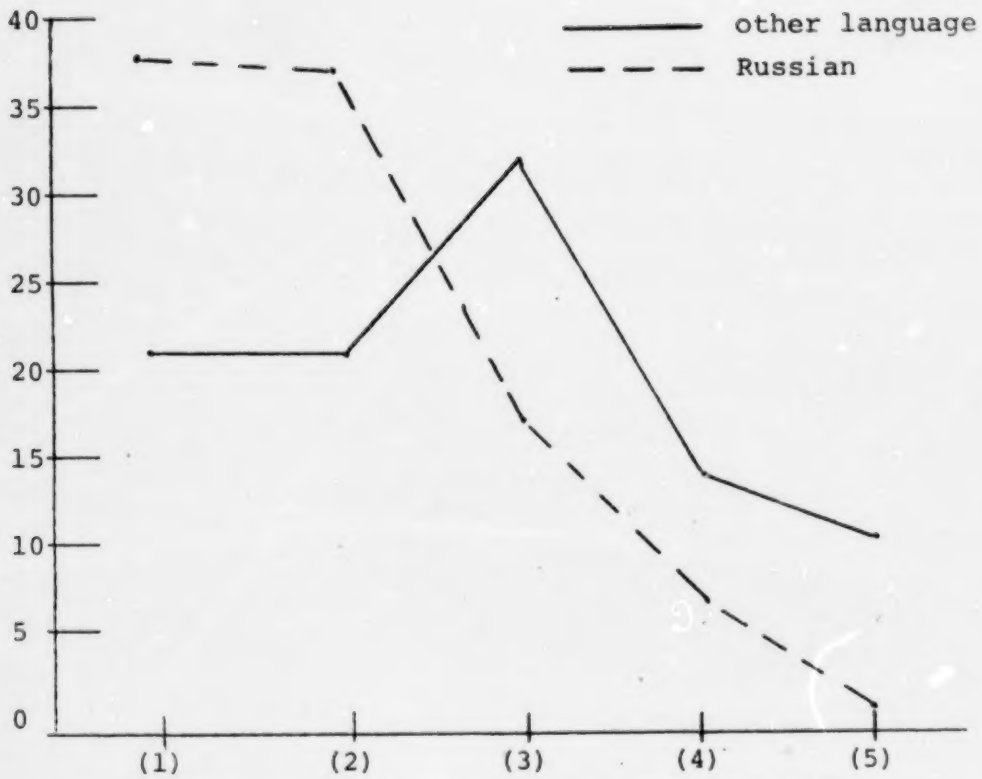


Figure 6: Ranking of comprehension skills achieved in other foreign languages as compared to Russian on a scale of (1) - lowest to (5) - highest.

Table 7: Classroom activities which would be most helpful for the development of skills in communicating. Forced choice of three from a list of fifteen activities.

Activity	#	%
1. speaking on unassigned topics	43	18.14
2. performing specific communicative tasks	40	16.88
3. answering questions orally	39	16.46
4. retelling what was just heard or read	30	12.66
5. playing games	23	9.70
6. speaking on assigned topics	17	7.17
7. giving oral reports and descriptions	11	4.64
8. doing vocabulary exercises orally	10	4.22
9. doing grammar exercises orally	9	3.80
10. doing oral translations	9	3.80
11. reciting dialogues	6	2.53

Figure 7: Reasons for lack of communicative skills in Russian ranked on a scale of (1) least important to (5) - most important.

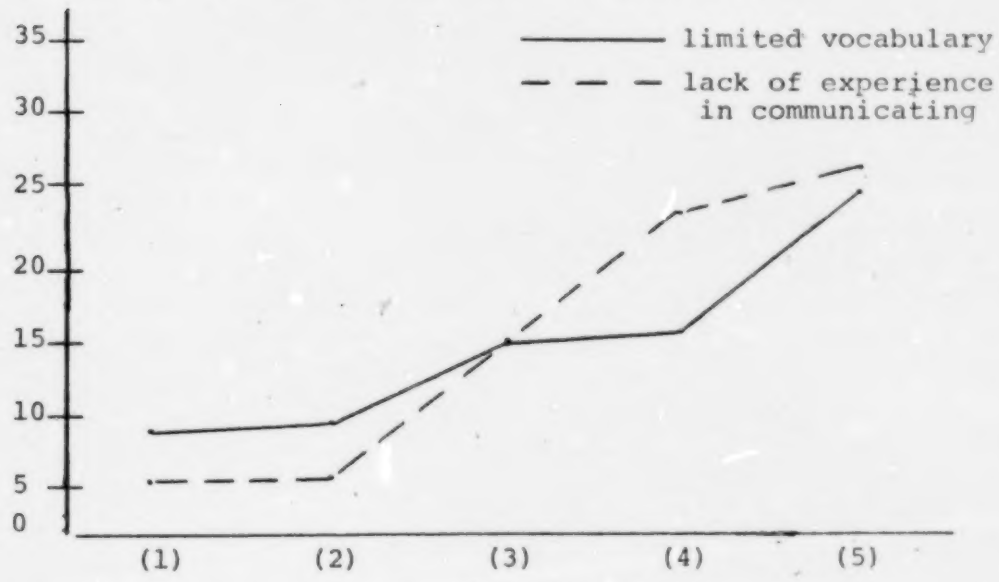
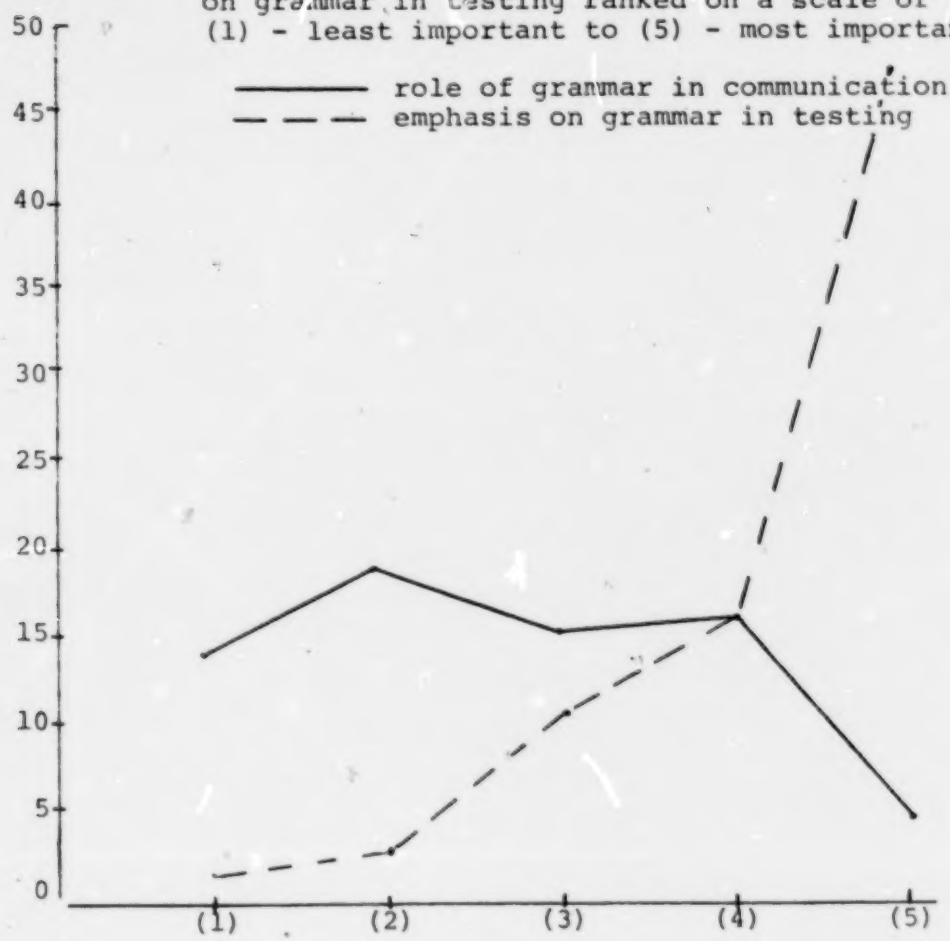


Table 8: Skills as reflected in grades in Russian ranked on a scale of (1) - least reflected in the grade to (5) - most reflected in the grade.

Skills	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Pronunciation	21	19	22	11	6
Vocabulary	4	4	23	26	22
Grammar	1	3	12	17	46
Ability to communicate	22	23	16	10	8
Ability to understand	20	20	21	19	9

Figure 8: Role of grammar in communication and emphasis on grammar in testing ranked on a scale of (1) - least important to (5) - most important.



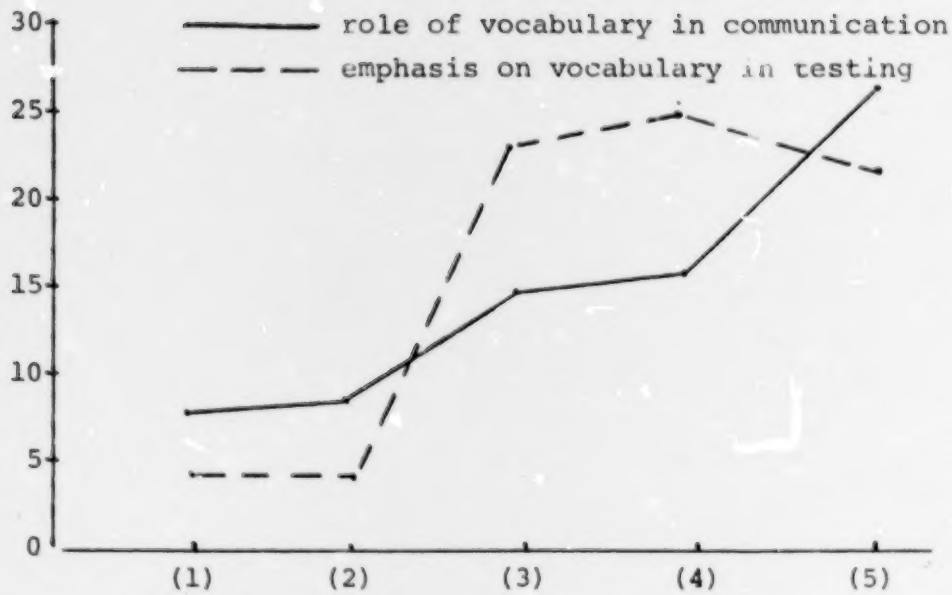


Figure 9: Role of vocabulary in communication and emphasis on vocabulary in testing ranked on a scale of (1) - least important to (5) - most important.

Table 9: Types of testing situations which would best measure ability to communicate in Russian. Forced choice of three from a list of ten.

Types of testing situations	#	%
1. giving and requesting information	61	25.74
2. answering questions	60	25.32
3. being interviewed by native speaker	44	18.57
4. acting out specific situations	27	11.39
5. giving oral reports and descriptions	22	9.28
6. doing oral translations	17	7.17
7. acting out dialogues	6	2.53

Table 10: Attitudes about error corrections.

What kind of errors should be corrected?	#	%
all errors	58	73.42
only errors affecting meaning	18	22.78
only grammatical errors	2	2.53
no errors	1	1.26
When should errors be corrected?		
at end of presentation	32	40.51
immediately	27	34.18
at end of sentence	15	18.99
whenever suitable	3	3.80
at end of class	2	2.53
By correcting your mistakes while you are speaking, the professor		
helps you speak Russian correctly	68	86.08
discourages you from speaking further	11	13.92

Table 14: Results of evaluation of an information-giving test of communicative proficiency. Entries in the columns represent average rating from three judges.

Ss	Amt. of Info.	Fluency	Will-ingness	Intel-ligibil.	Overall Communic.	Pronun-ciation	Gram-mar	Vocab.	Russian GPA
1	7	2	4	4	17	4	2	3	2.00
2	9	3	5	4	21	5	3	5	4.00
3	7	3	5	3	18	5	3	3	3.75
4	10	4	5	5	24	5	4	5	4.00
5	7	3	4	3	17	4	3	3	3.40
6	8	3	4	4	19	4	3	4	3.60
7	6	2	3	3	14	4	2	3	2.50
8	7	3	4	3	17	5	3	3	3.25
9	9	3	4	4	20	4	4	5	4.00
10	8	4	4	4	20	4	3	4	3.50

Table 12: Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients for relationship between different measures

Measure	r	Significance
Amount of communication and pronunciation	+.32	p .10
Amount of communication and grammar	+.81**	p .01
Amount of communication and vocabulary	+.94**	p .01
Overall communication and pronunciation	+.17	p .10
Overall communication and grammar	+.62	p .05
Overall communication and vocabulary	+.73*	p .02
Overall communication and GPA in Russian	+.53	p .10
Grammar and GPA in Russian	+.76*	p .02
Vocabulary and GPA in Russian	+.71*	p .02

FOOTNOTES

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14 See Lado's discussion of Clark's article in Jones and Spolsky, op. cit. f.n. 10 above, p. 25-26.

15 Savignon, pp. 43, 84.

16 Clark, loc. cit.

17 J. B. Carroll, The Foreign Language Attainments of Language Majors in the Senior Year: A Survey Conducted in U.S. Colleges and Universities (Cambridge, Mass.: Laboratory for Research in Instruction, Harvard Graduate School of Education, 1967), and "Foreign Language Proficiency Levels Attained by Language Majors Near Graduation from College," Foreign Language Annals, 1 (December, 1967), 131-51.

18 C. Garvey, A Report on the Developmental Testing of a Self-Instructional French Program (Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, EDRS: ED 019 900, 1967).

APPENDIX: SOME SUGGESTED PROCEDURES FOR TESTING COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

1. Establish course objectives by drawing up a list of topics the students should be able to describe. For example, elementary proficiency in communicating could include being able to describe self, family, school, everyday activities, etc. Intermediate proficiency might include being able to describe vacations, holidays, travel, eating out, shopping, entertainment, sports, etc. Advanced proficiency might include being able to describe books, politics, current events, professional interests, economy, ecology, fuel crisis, etc. Evaluation of grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary might be geared to the level of proficiency in communicating.
2. Provide students with activities stressing communicative aspects of language as part of your regular classroom activities.
3. Conduct short tests of communicative competence as often as feasible. This is more reliable than one test at the end of the semester. Sampling reliability is certainly greater that way. It also allows to compare student progress.
4. Since individualized testing is difficult to arrange and may in addition suffer from lack of face validity, group testing may be conducted with individual presentations recorded for delayed scoring. The presence of the group reduces tension and assures greater similarity to the usual classroom situation.
5. Several possible tests of communicative competence in a group setting are easy to administer and score.

A. REPORTING ABOUT VARIOUS ASPECTS OF A TOPIC.

1. Bring in a "Russian visitor." He does not speak English and is interested in the students telling him about an aspect of their lives. Suppose the visitor is interested in American holidays. A set of 3 x 5 cards with the names of various American holidays is arranged face down in random order on the table. The names of holidays may include Рождество, Пасха, Новый год, День Независимости, День Ветеранов, день отца, день матери, День Благодарения, день рождения, день св. Валентина, день св. Патрика, Пурим, и т.д.
2. Students take turns picking up a card and making a short (4-min) presentation. During the presentation, no attempt is made to correct errors, but help may be provided if asked for. However, if the presentation becomes unintelligible, the "visitor" can seek clarifications and ask questions. Each presentation is recorded. The students need not know that this is a test.
3. After each presentation, the rest of the group can make additional comments and ask questions of the speaker. This reduces tension and makes the session more participatory.
4. Tape-recorded presentations are graded for amount of communication, intelligibility and fluency. Amount of communication can be objectified by pooling together all points of information on the topic mentioned by the group. Each individual report is graded by checking off the points mentioned by the speaker. This is quite easy to do and can be prepared on the basis of experience for a number of topics. Assessment of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary can also be made, since it

is of interest to see the correlation between communicative and linguistic skills.

5. To assure reliability of assessment, judges should be trained in criteria to be used. Teacher judges are notoriously unwilling to separate the notions of "communicative" and "linguistic" competence. If you can objectify any part of the evaluation, reliability will be greater. It is useful for the judges to arrive at a compromise rating rather than taking an average of the ratings. Discussing the rating will help arrive at mutually shared criteria.

B. SEEKING INFORMATION ABOUT A TOPIC.

1. If you have no "Russian visitor" available, group testing can be performed within the framework of seeking of information. The test is a variation of the "Game of 20 questions" but the students may be limited to five or some small number of questions. The guesses are limited to a certain topic.
2. Let us suppose the topic is American holidays or Russian holidays. A list of sentences is prepared by the instructor. The sentences are of the following kinds: Я только что получил приглашение от друга. Миша получил много подарков. Сегодня никто не работает. Завтра не надо рано вставать. На столе стоит огромный обед. Идут бурные приготовления к празднику. В доме шумно и весело. Мэр города готовит речь. Муж покупает жене подарок. и т. д.
3. The instructor writes one sentence at a time on the board, and students in turn attempt to find out what the sentence means. For example, they can ask if the actions takes place in the U.S. or the U.S.S.R. They may ask if the holiday is a religious or national one. The instructor can only answer with "yes" or "no." Success is measured

in the amount of information elicited in the process of narrowing down choices.

4. Each student's information-seeking is recorded for delayed scoring. Criteria for establishing amount of communication can also be objectified by making a pooled list of types of questions used by the group. Intelligibility and fluency are rated on a scale. It is useful for judges to discuss their ratings to achieve uniformity of criteria.

C. USING RECORDED PRESENTATIONS TO CHECK PROGRESS

1. If you save the recorded presentations and compare the first with the last one you will have a measure of progress. It is interesting to compare the progress in ability to communicate information or seek information vis a vis mastery of grammar and vocabulary.
2. Letting the students hear themselves speak at the beginning and at the end of the year provides them with a tangible indication of their progress.

D. ADDITIONAL STRATEGIES

Many additional strategies for testing communicative competence which are easily adaptable for the Russian situation can be found in W.H. Bartz, "Testing Communicative Competence," in Teaching for Communication in the Foreign Language Classroom, Selected papers from the 1976 Central States Conference, ed. R.A. Schulz (Skokie, Illinois: National Textbook Co., 1976), pp. 52-64.

EVALUATION SHEET FOR INFORMATION GIVING

Student's name _____ Evaluator _____

AMOUNT OF INFORMATION GIVEN:

significance of holiday	_____
personal feelings about holiday	_____
preparations for holiday	_____
activities during holiday	_____
observations	_____
other	_____

WILLINGNESS TO GIVE INFORMATION:

_____ ' _____ ' _____ ' _____ ' _____

unwilling willing

INTELLIGIBILITY:

_____ ' _____ ' _____ ' _____ ' _____

unintelligible intelligible

FLUENCY:

_____ ' _____ ' _____ ' _____ ' _____

hesitant fluent

PRONUNCIATION:

_____ ' _____ ' _____ ' _____ ' _____

GRAMMAR:

_____ ' _____ ' _____ ' _____ ' _____

inaccurate accurate

VOCABULARY:

_____ ' _____ ' _____ ' _____ ' _____

inadequate adequate